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ABSTRACT

As a result of the changes in certification procedures for foreign language teachers in Florida, a syllabus was designed that could be used by both university professors and by district level supervisors to provide preservice and inservice training for teachers of foreign languages in the elementary schools (FLES). The syllabus follows a functional/collaborative process that incorporates the following elements: (1) review of literature and materials; (2) collaborative developmental meetings; (3) state and national surveys; (4) individual interviews; (5) videotaping; and (6) review by, and suggetions from, consultants. The functional/collaborative curriculum design process used to develop the syllabus allowed for maximum contribution of ideas from all FLES professionals in Florida. In addition, survey and interview data also insured that the more global concerns of the profession would be addressed. Supporting materials were designed and selected to aid university and district course developers in designing FLES methods courses that would meet both the state certification guidelines and district level needs. The supporting materials include the following: selected readings in FLES theory and research, an annotated reference bibliography, and an annotated bibliograhy of FLES program support materials. (88 references) (Author/DJD)

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SYLLABUS FOR
METHODS OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES
INTHE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

The syllabus that follows (pages 9-18)was developed under a contract funded through the Florida State Department of Education. The impetus for the project was a change in the State certification standards. After July l, 1988 certification coverage for all foreign languages changed from the current 7-12 to levels K-12. The purpose of the project was to develop a syllabus that could be used by both university professors and district level supervisors to provide preservice and inservice training in the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary schools (FLES), thus meeting the need for methods training in teaching foreign languages in grades K-6.

PROBLEM

Florida has had a state-wide FLES program since the l982-83 school year. The program provides funds for foreign language instruction in the elementary schools. Local school districts match state funds on a one-to-one basis for this program. As of the 1986-87 school year, approximately 300 public schools and 10 private schools representing 23 districts were participating in the Florida FLES program.

Prior to the July 1 certification changes, foreign language teachers not trained in elementary teaching were teaching in FLES programs. Likewise, elementary teachers not trained in foreign language teaching methods were teaching in FLES programs just by demonstrating proficiency in the language of instruction. In both instances, teachers were only partially prepared to effectively design, implement and evaluate FLES programs and materials.

In the fall of l987 when the foreign language certification changes were being proposed, Dr. Clemens Hallman conducted an informal state-wide survey and found that there were no courses in FLES methods currently offered at any teacher education institution in Florida. Only Dr. Ernest Frechette at Florida State University had a FLES methods course "on the books." Dr. Hallman had been offering FLES methodology and curriculum design as "special topics" courses at the University of Florida.

BACKGROUND

When notification of the State contract was received, Dr. Hallman and Anne Campbell began researching available information regarding the preparation of FLES teachers. They found that efforts were beening made at the national level to address the teacher preparation issue--for example, the l988 ACTFL Standards for the preparation of FLES teachers (ACTFL l988), the l988 National FLES Institute being conducted by Gladys Lipton (Klutts l987-88), the February 1988 Wingspread meeting on FLES sponsored by the Johnson Foundation (Rhodes, l988), and recent changes in FLES certification throughout the U.S. (Clark, l988).

The review of literature also indicated that the teaching of FLES had become a complex issue. The need for a FLES methods course that could be disseminated to state and national foreign language educators was obvious. However, if the proposed methods course was to be effective it would have to reflect not only recent research and developments in theory and methodology, but the reality of teaching in FLES programs and the concerns of practicing FLES teachers and their supervisors. In short, the course would have to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

COURSE DESIGN

To develop a course that truly reflected the concerns of the profession and that prepared teachers to effectively teach in FLES programs, a "functional/ collaborative" curriculum design process developed by Dr. Clemens L Hallman and Anne Campbell at the University of Florida was used. The proposed syllabus that follows is the product of this approach. The "functional/collaborative" process incorporates the following elements:

Review of Literature and Materials

Literature was reviewed to determine concerns and issues currently being addressed in the preparation of FLES teachers. From this review, possible topics were identified for inclusion in a FLES methods course. Additionally, the review of literature and FLES materials was used to identify possible texts for the course, develop reading lists and annotated bibliographies, and to identify resources for FLES programs and teachers.

Collaborative Developmental Meetings

Two collaborative/developmental meetings were held. The purpose of these meetings was to provide statewide input and to enable the development of a course that truly reflected the concerns all FLES professionals: classroom teachers, supervisors, university foreign language education professors, and the state-level foreign language supervisor.

First meeting (June 10-11, 1988). Seventeen (17) people attended the first meeting: 5 FLES teachers, 5 foreign language district supervisors, 5 university foreign language teacher education professors, the state foreign language consultant , the primary course developer, and the project consultant, herself being a FLES teacher in Florida. The FLES teachers represented all regions of the state and the three primary types of FLES programs offered in Florida: traditional FLES, which prepares students to enter junior high or high school foreign language courses at advanced beginning or intermediate levels; FLEX, which emphasizes exposure of students to a foreign language and develops appreciation for different cultures; and FLES as an integrated part of the elementary school curriculum in which foreign language study is used to enhance and support students' mastery of basic skills. Efforts were made to insure that participants represented the State geographically and that districts with the greatest numbers of FLES teachers and students were represented.

Second Meeting (July 26). Eleven (11) participants attended the second meeting: 3 FLES teachers, 3 foreign language district supervisors, 2 university foreign language faculty, the state foreign language consultant, and the primary course developer. Also representing the State Department of Education was Mike Tremor, Supervisor. The purpose of the second meeting was to review the draft syllabus and two working annotated bibliographies, and to evaluate recent resource materials with regard to their inclusion as primary references on the final syllabus. Plans were made to finalize the syllabus and to distribute the syllabus and supporting materials to district foreign language supervisors and state and national foreign language educators.

State and National Survey

Statewide. A statewide training needs assessment was conducted of FLES supervisors, FLES teachers, and university faculty teaching courses related to foreign language teaching. The survey attempted to elicit concerns of FLES educators who were not included in the "functional/collaborative" meetings. The survey generated additional topics and issues that were incorporated into the syllabus.

National. A national survey was administered to 25 national FLES educators. Survey participants were identified from the FLES literature and from FLESNews, the National Network for Early Language Learning newsletter. The purpose of the national questionnaire was to identify national issues that might not have been identified in the statewide survey.

Individual Interviews

Individual inteviews were conducted with selected FLES teachers, administrators, and foreign language education faculty. The purpose was to gain an in-depth understanding of the issues and concerns that were raised in the surveys and in the "functional/ collaborative" meetings.

Videotaping

Ten 30-minute FLES lessons were videotaped. In addition, two hours of a school-wide Spanish Bowl for grades 1-5 at one elementary school and a first grade Mexican 'fiesta' which incorporated the FLES curriculum were taped. The purpose of the tapes was to gain a sense of what the FLES teacher actually does during a lesson. Additionally, taped interviews were made of the FLES teacher before and after the lessons to determine how a FLES teacher organizes and presents specific concepts and to identify issues related to implementing the total curriculum. The Spanish Bowl and the first grade 'fiesta,' which were taped the next to the last week of school, gives an excellent sense of what can realistically be expected of a FLES program where students have FLES twice a week for half an hour each lesson.

Consultant

A FLES teacher with 5 years of experience developing and implementing FLES programs was used throughout the development of the syllabus. She reviewed materials and reacted to proposed topics from the perspective of a practicing classroom teacher. She also helped develop annotated resource and materials bibliographies.

COURSE SYLLABUS

Overview

The "functional/collaborative" curriculum design process used to develop the syllabus allowed for maximum contribution of ideas from all FLES professionals in Florida: teachers, supervisors, and university and state-level foreign language educators. Additionally, survey and interview data also insured that the more global concerns of the profession would be addressed.

The syllabus is also the product of a **proactive and collaborative process** rather than a **reactive, university- based response** to recent changes in state certification guidelines for foreign language teachers. The syllabus is comprehensive in that is is grounded in the reality of the FLES classroom while reflecting the theoretical bases that underline FLES programs and teaching.

Supporting Materials

The supporting materials were designed and selected to aid university and district course developers in designing FLES methods courses that will meet both state certification guidelines and district level needs. The supporting materials include the following:

- Selected readings in FLES theory and research
- Annotated reference bibliography
- Annotated bibliography of FLES program support materials.

REFERENCES

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Clark, M. (1988). State involvement in FLES increases. FLESNews, vol. 1, no. 3; 1, 4 & 7-8.

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Rhodes, N. (1988). Wingspread initiates FLES dialogue. FLESNews, vol. 1, no. 3.

1988 FLES PROJECT PARTICIPANTS

Participants	Position	Affiliation
Gilda Ashpal	Teacher	Dade County Public Schools
Ada Corbett	Teacher	Lee County Public Schools
Monique DaLombe	Teacher	Volusia County Public Schools
Vilma Diaz	Supervisor	Broward County Public Schools
Carine Feyton	Professor	University of South Florida
Ernest Frechette	Professor	Florida State University
Christine Grosse	Professor	Florida International University
David Gurney	Professor	University of Central Florida
Marlene Jacobowitz	Teacher	Marion County Public Schools
Wally Lyshkov	Supervisor	Dade County
John Meros	Teacher	Pinellas County Public Schools
Gerda Mullen	Supervisor	Volusia County Public Schools
Esther Oteiza	Supervisor	Marion County Public Schools

Staff	Position	Affiliation
Anne Campbell	Graduate Associate	University of Florida
Clemens Hallman	Project Director	University of Florida
Melody Hofstetter	Consultant/Teacher	Alachua County Public Schools
Gabriel Valdes	Consultant	DOE, Tallahassee

Other People Attending One or More of the Curriculum Development Meetings

Aurora Abad	Coordinator	Lee County Public Schools
Teresa Callahan	Teacher	Palm Beach County Public Schools
Mary Johnson	Supervisor	Lee County Public Schools
Diane Mesa	Teacher	Dade County Public Schools
Mike Tremor	Supervisor	DOE, Tallahassee

FIRST FLES "FUNCTIONAL/COLLABORATIVE" MEETING
JUNE 10-11
ORLANDO, FLORIDA

Activities Worksheet

Activity 1: Project Overview and Introductions

The purpose of the meeting and agenda were discussed. Participants were then asked to introduce themselves, to describe the FLES program they were currently involved with, and to express their concerns regarding the training of FLES teachers. The activity began with FLES teachers and the FLES supervisors. The the foreign language education faculty and the state foreign language consultant shared their ideas and concerns.

Activity 2: Interest Group Task Forces

Participants were divided into three groups: teachers, FLES supervisorss and IHEs. The groups were given the task of developing the FLES methods course from their different perspectives. Teachers were asked to respond to this question: Based on the realities of classroom teaching, what should a FLES teachers know and be able to do to effectively develop and implement a FLES program? FLES supervisors were asked to respond to the following question: Based on implementing FLES programs and on supervising FLES teachers, what qualities, knowledge, and skills wold your ideal FLES teacher have? From the list of qualities, knowledge, and skills you develop identify the ones that you think a FLES methods course could address. The IHEs were asked to address the following: As foreign language educators, what knowledge and skills does a FLES teacher need? FLES Surveys completed by the participants before the meeting were used as a basis for discussion.

Activity 3: Large Group Task Forces

Participants were divided into two groups with representatives from each interest group task force. The purpose was that of sharing perspectives. The large groups were given the task of integrating the topics, knowledge, and skills identified by each interest group. Each group was given 1/2 hour to present their group's suggested curriculum and discuss issues their group felt needed to be addressed.

Activity 4: Wrap-up and Identification of Future Activities

The Project Director summarized the two days activities. The group decided what activities needed to be done before the second "functional/collaborative" meeting. The date for the second conference and the location were decided upon.

SECOND FLES "FUNCTIONAL/COLLABORATIVE" MEETING
JULY 26, 1988
SANIBEL ISLAND, FL

Activities Worksheet

Activity 1: Analysis and Discussion of FLES Syllabus

Using the FLES Syllabus Worksheet, please read and criticaly evaluate the proposed FLES Syllabus. On the worksheet rewrite any of the objectives if they are not clear and add to or delete from the topics included for each objective. Make sure that all objectives have appropriate and sufficient topics. If you can think of activities or resources for any of the topics, please list them on the worksheets. You can work individually or in small groups for this activity.

Activity 2: Analysis of Primary Reference Bibliography

Attached to the syllabus is a primary reference list and a Mini-Bibliography. Please indicate those references that you feel are essential to include in the FLES methods course. Please list any books or articles that you feel should be included that were not listed.

Activity 3: Analysis of Annotated Materials Bibliography and of Annotated Reference Bibliography

Read and review the two annotated bibliographies. Add comments for any of the materials that you have used. Please add any materials or references that you feel should be included in the bibliographies.

Activity 4: Reading and Discussion of FLES Articles

Read the two FLES articles. Working with a partner, discuss the issues raised in the articles. Identify what you feel are the strengths of FLES programs in Florida, identify issues that need to be addressed in developing and implementing FLES training programs, and recommend an agenda for future research and training.

Activity 5: Presentation of Results of Activities 1- 4 and Wrap-up

PROPOSED SYLLABUS FOR METHODS OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

PURPOSE:

This course is designed to provide training in the theory and methods of teaching foreign languages in the elementary school (FLES) to both pre- and inservice teachers. Preservice teachers include foreign language majors interested in elementary school teaching and elementary majors who are proficient in a foreign language and interested in teaching FLES. Inservice teachers include elementary teachers, proficient in a foreign language who are teaching or who are interested in teaching FLES; and secondary trained teachers who are teaching or who are interested in teaching FLES. The course is designed to meet the requirements of a 15 week university semester; however, it is adaptable for use with inservice foreign language programs.

NOTE: This course was designed to cover a broad range of needs and topics. The course should be flexible in the treatment of objectives as dictated by the make-up of the student population; for example, if most of the students are already secondary teachers, emphasize elementary school teaching issues, theories and methods as they relate to FLES; if the students are elementary teachers, emphasize second language theory, and foreign language learning and teaching techniques and methods as they relate to FLES.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Develop an understanding of and appreciation for the historical influences that have affected the teaching of FLES in the United States.

2. Develop an understanding of the differences in underlying theories, curriculum design, and program content between Foreign Language Experience (FLEX), Foreign Language in the Elementary Schools (FLES), FLES through the content areas, and Immersion programs.

3. Develop an understanding of first language development and its relation to second language learning in childhood.

4. Develop ability to apply second language teaching techniques to the FLES classroom.

5. Develop knowledge of elementary school principles and practices--knowledge of child development, child management, and child learning, curriculum development and implementation, and the ability to apply such knowledge to foreign language education in the elementary school.

(Objectives cont.)

6. Identify and discuss problems and issues related to the design, implementation and evaluation of FLES programs.

7. Develop or increase an awareness of the cultural and linguistic aspects of the target language focusing on both the similarities and differences existing in the different regions where people speak that language.

8. Develop the ability to compare and contrast the similarities and differences of the cultural and linguistic aspects of the target language with English.

9. Develop the ability to integrate "cultural" aspects of the target language into the curriculum.

SUGGESTED TOPICS

History of FLES in the United States
- FLES Programs: FLES, FLEX, Immersion
  - Rationale
  - Objectives
  - Administration
  - Current Trends and Issues

FLES Theory, Research and Findings
- What Research Says
  - Effect of FLES on Later Language Learning
  - Effect of FLES on the Development of General Cognitive Skills
  - Effect of FLES on the Development of Multicultural Awareness

Growth and Development in Children
- Linguistic
  - Language Learning
  - Language Acquisition
    - First Language
    - Second Language
- Psychological
  - Developmental Theories
  - Cognitive Development
  - Affective Development
- Social

The Nature of Language and Second Language Learning and Teaching
- Historical Overview
- Current Theories

Developing and Integrating Language Skills in the FLES Curriculum
- Listening
- Speaking
- Reading
- Writing
- Grammar

Applying Second Language Teaching Methods to the FLES Classroom
- Analysis of 10 Second Language Teaching Methods
- Applicability of Methods to FLES Programs
- Applicability of Methods to Different Elementary Grades

Integrating Foreign Language Teaching with the Elementary Grades
- Elementary School Principles and Practices
  - Child Development
  - Chld Learning
  - Management Strategies in the Elementary Classroom
- Objectives and Organization of the Elementary School Curricula
- Teaching Content Areas Through FLES
  - Language Arts
  - Social Studies
  - Science
  - Art
  - Music
  - Math

Implementing a FLES Curriculum: Issues and Considerations
- Planning the FLES Program
  - Setting Realistic Expectations
  - Objectives
  - Time: Per Week and Per Class
  - Selecting Students
  - Sequence
  - Articulation
  - Place of FLES in the School and the Foreign Language Curriculum
- Public Relations
  - Administration
  - Teachers
  - Parents
- Classroom Management
  - Whose Classroom is it Anyway?
  - Management in the Elementary Grades

(Implementation of FLES Program cont.)
- Planning FLES Lessons
  - Setting Objectives
  - Setting Realistic Expectations
  - Tips for a Successful Class
  - Preparation of Materials
  - Teaching Techniques
  - Supplementary Materials
  - Flexibility in the FLES Classroom

Integrating Culture in the FLES Curriculum
- Selecting Aspects of the Culture of Target Language Countries Appropriate for use in FLES Programs
  - Holidays
  - Foods
  - Folklore
  - Music
  - Art
  - History
  - Customs and Values
  - Geography
  - Current Events
- Developing Culture Lessons as Separate Activities
- Integrating Culture Components into All Apsects of the FLES Curriculum
- Working with Other Teachers to Integrate Culture Activities in the Regular School Curriculum

Evaluating the FLES Program
- The Role of Testing in the FLES Curriculum
- Types of Tests and Their Uses in the FLES Program
  - Standardized
  - Teacher-made
  - Proficiency Tests and Ratings
  - Informal Ways to Test Students
- Alternative forms of Evaluation
  - Videotapes
  - Classroom Activities

Planning for the Unexpected
- Problems in Implementing a FLES Program
- Guildelines to a Successful FLES Program
  - For Teachers
  - For Administrators
  - For Parents

FLES Teacher as Professional
- Qualities
- National Organizations
- Networking

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

Class Participation

Students will select two of the topics in the course syllabus. In addition to the required readings, students will be expected to read five sources related to each of the two topics. Sources could be chapters from books, journal or ERIC articles, monographs, research reports or similar sources related to the selected topics. Students will be expected to help lead class discussions when their topics are discussed. Additionally, students must submit a list of sources read to prepare for the class.

All students will be expected to have read the required readings and to participate in class discussions.

Annotated Bibliography

Students will be required to develop an annotated bibliography of the course readings. Bibliographies must have at least 15 entries and include the ten sources read for class participation. The other five entries should be annotations of FLES materials. APA style is required.

Field Practicum

The Field Practicum is discussed in detail on pages 17 - 18 of this syllabus. The practicum will consist of five (5) activities: observations of FLES classrooms, interviews with FLES teachers, journal entries, lesson plans, and classroom teaching. It is primaryily through the practicxum experience that the students will demonstrate mastery of objectives #2-9 listed in the course syllabus.

Tests

There will be two tests given over the course reading: a mid-term and a final exam. Tests will be multiple choice and essay. Details as to what will be included on the exams will be given in class.

PRIMARY REFERENCES

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Dulay, H., Burt, M. & Krashen, S. (1982). Language Two. Oxford, ENG: Oxford University Press.

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Omaggio, A. C. (1986). Teaching Language in Context: Proficiency-Oriented Instruction. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers, Inc.

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Rubin, J. & Thompson, I. (1982). How to be a More Successful Language Learner. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers, Inc.

Schinke-Llano, L. (1985). Foreign Languages in the Elementary School: State of the Art. West Nyack, NY: Prentice Hall. #325366 $9.33.

Teidt, P.L. & Teidt, I.M. (1986). Multicultural Teaching: A Handbook of Activities, Information, and Resources (2nd. ed). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon

RECOMMENDED JOURNALS

ACTFL Newsletter
Dialogue (Center for Applied Linguistics
Foreign Language Annals
Modern Language Journal

NEWSLETTERS FOR FLES TEACHERS

Good sources of recent research in FLES as well as classroom activities and materials.

FLES News (National Network for Early Language Learning)
Contact: Nancy Rhodes
FLES News
Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd St. NW
Washington, DC 20037

IOWA FLES Newsletter
Contact: Marcia Rosenbusch, Editor
300 Pearson Hall
Iowa State Univesity
Ames, Iowa 50011

ALL Newsletter
Contact: Advocates for Language Learning
P.O. Box 4964
Culver City, CA 90231

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

"USING Immersion Techniques in the FLES Classroom." Ferndale Public Schools, Ferndale, MI 48220.

"Curriculum Integration Outline." Prepared by Deborah Arambrila and Maria Nevarez. San Jose Unified School District, San Jose, CA.

CURRENT TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

Bank Street College, NY, NY Mari Haas

FLES National Summer Institute
University of MD
Baltimore County, Catonsville, MD 21228
Gladys Lipton, Director

RECOMMENDED FIELD PRACTICUM IN TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DESIGNED FOR PRE-SERVICE STUDENT TEACHERS

OVERVIEW

The field practicum experience affords students interested in teaching foreign languages in the elementary school (FLES) the opportunity to observe and work with inservice FLES teachers. It is important that this field experience be distinguished from student teaching. The FLES field experience serves as an introduction to the various types of responsibilities the student will assume as a professional FLES educator. A primary purpose of the practicum is to enhance student understanding of methods and procedures used in FLES programs. A second purpose is to enable students to apply their understanding of their formal FLES course materials to the development and implementation of FLES programs. Practicum activities will be based on the experience of the participant, the age of the students the participants is assigned to teach and the needs of the FLES classroom teachers.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

Practicum participants will be expected to observe a minimum of 20 hours in a FLES classrooms before they complete the practicum teaching component. During the observation period, particpants will be expected to complete the following activities:

Observation of FLES Classes and Interviews with FLES teacher. The participant will conduct both structured and informal interviews with their supervising FLES teacher during the observation period. The purpose of the interviews is for the participant to gain an understanding of the type of FLES program being observed and its overall organization, and to gain an understanding of how specific concepts are presented in FLES lessons. Based on the interviews the participant will submit a 3 to 5 page written description of the FLES program: underlying theory, organization, goals, and content. The participant will also identify and discuss any problems and issues that were related to the design, implementation and evaluation of the FLES program that was observed. (Demonstrates course objectives #2, 5, & 6)

Journal entries. For each classroom observation participants will be required to write a journal entry. The main purpose of the journal entries is for the participant to demonstrate the ability to observe and reflect on classroom and school experiences. Possible foci for journal entries include the following topics:

- Commenting on classroom organization and use of materials
- Discuss classroom management strategies
- Identifying objectives and discovering why the supervising planned certain activities
- Comment on school organization and environment as it affects the FLES program or specific lessons

(Journal Entries cont.)

- Discuss aspects of teaching FLES that the practicum student finds more satisfying or least satisfying
  (Demonstrates course objectives #3 & 5)

Lesson Plans. To effectively demonstrate mastery of course objectives #3, 4 & 5, practicum participants will be required to plan and teach 10 lessons in the FLES classroom to which they are assigned. The lessons will be planned in cooperation with the supervising FLES teacher and must be appropriate to the concepts being developed, the characteristics of the learners, and the goals of the FLES curriculum. Each lesson plan must include the following:

1. clear and specific learning objectives,
2. a content outline,
3. a statement of prerequisite skills,
4. procedures,
5. evaluation activities
6. the integration of culture based components and activities whenever appropriate during the lesson.

Teaching FLES Classes. Practicum participants will be required to teach 10 FLES lessons after they have completed the above activities. In addition to the above criteria for lesson plans, teaching of the lessons will also be evaluated on the participants ability to construct and use questions which elicit learner responses that are appropriate to the lesson objectives. Participants will also be expected to use a variety of teaching methods, strategies and learning activities which are appropriate to the learning objectives for the lesson and the characteristics of the learners.

Supervising teachers will meet with practicum participants before and after the lessons are taught. The purpose of the meetings will be to clarify objectives and to evaluate the implementation of the lessons. It is recommended that the FLES Methods Course instructors observe at least three lessons for each participant. If this is not possible, then it is recommended that lessons be videotaped for viewing at a later date. (Demonstrates course objectives #4 - 9.)

COURSE SUPPORT MATERIALS: BIBLIOGRAPHIES

U of F Annotated FLES References Bibliography
U of F Annotated FLES Support Materials Bibliography
University of Florida FLES Bibliography
Additional FLES Bibliographies

Brady, Agnes, and Margarita Marquezde Moats. la navidad Christmas in Spain and Latin America

Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company. (1977)

Contains a collection of plays, songs and information about the different Christmas celebrations of Spanish speaking countries. The reading is for advanced students. However, customs and traditions can be adapted and shared with elementary students.

Davis, Jim. Garfield !En espanol!.

Troy, Michigan: Teacher's Discovery. (1984)

Contains a collection of cartoons. Best for more advanced students. However, it also contains some cartoons with very simple vocabulary.

Amery, Heather, Reyes Mila and Stephen Cartwright. The First Thousand Words In Spanish.

London, England: Usborne Publishing, Inc. (1979)

Every two pages of this book are related to a particular topic. The vocabulary words are written under the pictures. Pages are colorful and of high interest to elementary students. Topics include: things at home, animals, transportation, environment, clothing, sports, and more.

Hazzan, Anne-Francoise. Let's Learn Spanish Coloring Book.

Lincolnwood, IL: Passport Books. (1986)

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Amery, Heather, Reyes Mila and Stephen Cartwright. The First Thousand Words In Spanish.

London, England: Usborne Publishing, Inc. (1979)

Every two pages of this book are related to a particular topic. The vocabulary words are written under the pictures. Pages are colorful and of high interest to elementary students. Topics include: things at home, animals, transportation, environment, clothing, sports, and more.

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Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company. (1977)

Contains a collection of plays, songs and information about the different Christmas celebrations of Spanish speaking countries. The reading is for advanced students. However, customs and traditions can be adapted and shared with elementary students.

Davis, Jim. Garfield En espanol!.

Troy, Michigan: Teacher's Discovery. (1984)

Contains a collection of cartoons. Best for more advanced students. However, it also contains some cartoons with very simple vocabulary.

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MINIBIB

Research on the Relationship Between Children's First and Second Language Learning

compiled by Fay Vaughn-Cook

November

ARTICLES

EJ 334 509 Levy, Yonata. "Theoretical Gains from the Study of Bilingualism: A Case Report." Language Learning; v35 n4 (Dec 1985) p541-544.

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Evaluation of Immersion Programs

compiled by Laura Wenzel

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Describes immersion programs in the United States and Canada and reviews results of evaluative research pertaining to them. Also discusses the suitability of immersion for students with potentially handicapping characteristics.

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Analyzes the claims that the existing planning and implementation of Canadian French immersion programs is adequate and that the improvements in French learning are likely to ameliorate animosities between anglophiles and francophiles.

EJ 276 563 Lapkin, Sharon; And Others. "Late Immersion in Perspective: The Peel Study." Canadian Modern Language Review; v39 n2 (Jan 1983) p192-206.

Presents the 1979 evaluation of the Peel County (Ontario) late immersion French program, in context of some current issues in language education in Canada.

EJ 202 359 Genesee, Fred. "Scholastic Effects of French Immersion: An Overview After Ten Years." Interchange on Educational Policy; v9 n4 (1978-1979) p20-29.

Examines the scholastic effects of participation in three types of French immersion programs in terms of the students' English language skills, general academic achievement and functional competence in French.

EJ 143 544 Genesee, Fred; And Others. "An Experiment in Trilingual Education: Report 3." Canadian Modern Language Review; v34 n3 (Feb 1978) p621-43.

A third report on the evaluation of a trilingual school program in French, Hebrew and English being offered in two schools in the Montreal area.

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ED 240 835 Met, Myriam. Immersion and the Language Minority Student. Revised Version. 1984. 27pp.

Some effective components of programs for language minority students are complementary native language instruction, opportunities for comfortable native language conversation during the school day to alleviate stress and promote language pride, and consideration of group cultural differences in program design.

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Sample Curriculum Guides, Texts, Classroom Ideas, and Program Descriptions

FOR IMMERSION PROGRAMS

Canadian Parents for French. 1980. How to be an Immersion Parent (free pamphlet). Available from: Canadian Parents for French, Terminal P.O. Box 8470, Ottawa, Ontario K1G 3H6 Canada.

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FOR FLES PROGRAMS

Bishop, Russell H. 1980. "The Integrated Story: Helping to Take the Foreignness out of Language Learning." In Hispania, 61(1), 93-95. EJ 224 011. (Suggests ways of making dialog learning in a FLES class easier.)

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British Columbia Department of Education (Curriculum Development Branch, Victoria). 1976. Elementary French Program Guide. ED 176 550. (Contains a rationale for offering

French at the elementary level and an indication of the skills and attitudes pupils might acquire.)

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Jeannot Lapin (Song and game approach designed to sensitize children to the French language and culture--used in K-1 in Baton Rouge, LA.)

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a) Belchuneo, Martha and Rebecca Ullmann. 1979. Le Hockey [Hockey]. Teacher's Guide. ED 180 255. (Includes teacher's guide and tape transcript for module aimed at elementary or secondary school students with goal of teaching basic hockey vocabulary and understanding hockey games broadcast with French commentary.) ($3.30 teacher's guide)

b) Elsass, Raymond and Joan Howard. 1972. Les Papillons [The Butterflies]. Teacher's Guide. ED 180 256. (Includes resource kit for teaching French at the beginning primary level; module centers around a children's story, divided into 41 short episodes.) ($3.30 teacher's guide, $32.50 complete module)

c) Elsass, Raymond, et al. 1973. Le Meteo [The Weather Report]. Teacher's Guide. ED 180 257. (Includes resource kit for teaching French at the intermediate level with aim of introducing elementary or secondary school students to terminology used in French radio broadcasts, and especially in weather reports.) ($3.30 teacher's guide, $28.00 complete module)

d) Ullmann, Rebecca and Joyce Scane. La Fête de la Ste-Catherine: Guide. 1981. ED 209 915. (Presents a teacher's French-English guide to a cultural module that provides introductory reading materials for elementary school French students.)

e) Ullmann, Rebecca; et al. 1978. Le Temps des sucres [Sugaring-Off Time]. Teacher's Guide. ED 180 248. (A resource kit for teaching of listening comprehension in French at the beginning elementary level--includes teacher's guide with sample activities and lesson plans and handbook entitled, "The Maple Sugar Industry.") ($3.30 teacher's guide, $29.00 for complete module)

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-----. 1980. Foreign Language Experience in the Elementary School: German. FL 013 099. (Program guide includes objectives, teaching guidelines for classroom teachers and volunteers, and a 9-unit curriculum.)

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

MINIBIB

Innovative Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages

compiled by Lynn Thompson

August 1986

ARTICLES

EJ 317 053 Terrell, T. D. "The Natural Approach to Language Teaching: An Update." Canadian Modern Language Review; v41 n3 (Jan 1985) p461-79.

Proposes that language acquisition improves if beginning students are allowed to experience three stages of acquisition: comprehension (preproduction), early speech production, and speech emergence. Each stage requires a different kind of learning activity.

EJ 286 727 Johnston, Otto W. "Five Years with the Rassias Method in German: A Follow-up Report from the University of Florida." Foreign Language Annals; v16 n5 (Oct. 1983) p343-49.

Discusses the pros and cons of the Dartmouth Intensive Language Model (DILM) and offers some advice on introducing such a program in any language.

EJ 286 726 DiLaura, S. J. "Teaching Without Grammar: Title XII Experience at the University of Delaware." Foreign Language Annals; v16 n5 (Oct 1983) p339-42.

Describes the Strategic Interaction Approach, which is built around the use of scenarios, rather than a grammar syllabus, and requires students to work through communication problems.

EJ 274 560 Olagoke, D. O. "Eclecticism in Theoretical Approaches to the Teaching of Foreign Languages." System; v10 n2 (1982) p170-78.

Supports using a combination of various approaches to second language instruction. Emphasizes that pattern practice drills and error analysis should be included.

EJ 271 382 Bancroft, W. Jane. "Suggestopedia, Sophrology and the Traditional Foreign Language Class." Foreign Language Annals; v15 n5 (October 1982) p373-79.

Describes suggestopedia and sophrology techniques and shows how to apply them within the limitations of the traditional foreign language classroom.

EJ 268 424 Wolfe, David E., Jones, Gwendolyn. "Integrating Total Physical Response Strategy in a Level I Spanish Class." Foreign Language Annals; v15 n4 (Sep 1982) p273-80.

Reports on an experiment in which one group of high school students was taught using Total Physical Response (TPR) for 20 minutes a day and a control group was taught in the usual manner.

EJ 238 922 Tebutt, Susan; Hingley, Phil. "Using Local Radio: Making Your Own Programmes." British Journal of Language Teaching; v18 n2-3 (Winter 1980) p97-105.

Deals with the development of listening comprehension materials using radio. The treatment is in three parts: (1) preliminary objectives; (2) the actual compiling of the programs; and (3) reactions from pupils and teachers.

Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

EJ 236 847 Cernyak, Susan E.; Reimer, Robert C. "The Drama Workshop: A Lab Alternative." Foreign Language Annals; v13 n5 (October 1980) p395-97.

In lieu of language lab attendance, second-year language students had the option of attending a drama lab. The objective of the lab is to improve skills in pronunciation, intonation, and stress patterns.

EJ 236 841 Keilstrup, Duane V. "Using the Situation-Oriented Miniplay and the Videotape Recorder in Advanced Conversation Classes." Foreign Language Annals; v13 n5 (October 1980) p367-70.

Discusses a three-stage approach for teaching advanced conversation. Students master related course material, write and perform a miniplay based on that material, and then "survive" in a situation based on the material.

DOCUMENTS

ED 258 457 Parish, Charles. In Defense of Innovative Methods. April 1985. 29pp.

Discusses current pedagogical attitudes toward the theories and approaches of the Silent Way, Counseling Learning, Total Physical Response, Comprehension Training, and Suggestopedia, and examines the validity of the psycho- and sociolinguistic premises underlying these methods.

ED 239 516 Benderson, Albert. "Foreign Languages in the Schools." Focus; n12. 1983. 28pp.

The various sections of this document discuss the direct method, confluent approach, suggestopedia, total physical response, oral proficiency testing, successful elementary and high school and college language programs, and a history of foreign languages as a field of study.

ED 228 892 Stevick, Earl W.; And Others. On TESOL '82: Pacific Perspectives on Language Learning and Teaching. II. Challenging Assumptions. 1983. 76pp. (Available from: TESOL, 1118 22nd Street, NW, Washington, DC 20037. Available from EDRS on microfiche only as part of ED 228 890, 326pp.)

This section of the TESOL convention volumes challenges basic assumptions which are held by language teachers and researchers while at the same time providing other assumptions for professionals to challenge.

ED 226 596 Blair, Robert W., Ed. Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching. 1982. 257pp. (Available from: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Rowley, MA. 01969. Document Not Available from EDRS.)

This collection of 20 papers describes innovative methods of second language instruction with the aim of promoting change and experimentation in language teaching.

To read the articles, locate the appropriate journal in the library nearest you. Documents may be read on microfiche in institutions with an ERIC collection, or ordered from:

EDRS, Computer Microfilm International Corp.
3900 Wheeler Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22304

For the location of the ERIC collections in your area, write to: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20037

COURSE SUPPORT MATERIALS: READINGS

ACTFL Guidelines
Exemplary Practice Series (Excerpts)
FLESNews: Fall 1987 and Spring 1988
Parents as Partners: The FLES Experience
Spanish Certification Competencies: Florida
Summary of Foreign Language Methods
Teaching Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools
Teaching Language in Context (Excerpts)
U.S. Foreign Language Instruction: Assessing Needs and Creating an Action Plan

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THE ENCLOSED MATERIAL IS SENT TO YOU IN RESPONSE TO YOUR REQUEST OR FOR YOUR INFORMATION

A. Salleme
4

PROVISIONAL PROGRAM GUIDELINES FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

DRAFT
2/1988

These guidelines should be used with caution. They do not represent a statement of minimum thresholds and therefore neither supplant nor correspond in purpose to current accreditation and monitoring instruments. Though professional consensus on minimal indicators may ultimately be gleaned from the statements in this document, these guidelines are intended to serve a program development function; that is, to represent a forward-looking view as to what knowledge, skills and experiences are deemed by the profession as holding the most promise for the preparedness of foreign language teacher candidates. The discussion which follows each set of guidelines is for the purpose of helping you assess your institution's preparation of foreign language teachers from several perspectives, draw conclusions regarding the overall effectiveness of the program, and plan for future improvements.

The guidelines contained herein focus on three areas in the preservice preparation of foreign language teachers:

a) Personal Development: the knowledge and skills derived from a strong liberal arts education
b) Professional Development: the knowledge and skills derived from education and experience in the art and science of pedagogy
c) Specialist Development: the knowledge and skills associated with being a specialist in the language and culture to be taught in the classroom.

These guidelines were developed pursuant to a three-year grant to ACTFL from the Department of Education. They are provisional only and require at this point scrutiny, discussion and commentary from all sectors of the foreign language teaching profession.

Chem: give us your comments!
C.E.

ACTFL wishes to thank the following committee members who gave so generously of their time, energy and thoughts in the development of this document:

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PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

Programs designed to prepare foreign language teachers should include a strong liberal arts component to foster the personal and intellectual development of the candidate. The range of course offerings should include the humanities, social and behavioral sciences, natural sciences, mathematics and the arts. The educator is first and foremost an educated individual. Therefore, this sequence of studies should be well planned and broad enough to permit candidates to develop the processes and skills essential to experiencing success, satisfaction and intellectual growth in teaching and in life.

AREA I: COMMUNICATION

Guidelines

The coursework and experiences that comprise the liberal arts curriculum will develop:

1. Effective communication skills and strategies in English, including:
   a) listening for the implied and intended meaning as conveyed by verbal and non-verbal signals;
   b) conveying thoughts orally in a clear manner appropriate to the audience being addressed;
   c) reading a variety of texts and deriving a meaning consonant with the writer's intention;
   d) writing clearly and concisely in a style appropriate to the intent of the task;
   e) tailoring language (both oral and written) for a variety of audiences.
2. Strong interpersonal skills, including:
   a) an awareness of the perspective of one's audiences;
   b) a sense of the apropriateness and effectiveness of behaviors within a range of social and professional contexts;
   c) flexibility of thought in situations which offer a variety of interpretations and options;
   d) recognition or creation of alternative resolutions to conflict.

Discussion

An essential characteristic of an effective teacher is the ability to communicate well with a wide variety of audiences, using both written and spoken language. Toward this end, the Liberal Arts program should provide a broad spectrum of activities and experiences that will enable the candidates to practice these skills.

Indicators of program consistency with these guidelines include:

- o the availability of coursework in English communication skills and strategies;
- o opportunities for students to develop oral and written language skills across the disciplines;
- o the availability of coursework and instructional approaches designed to develop skills in interpersonal relations and group dynamics;
- o planned opportunities for contact with a variety of audiences;
- o guidelines in determining listener/reader frame of reference and perspective;
- o guidance in determining speaker/writer frame of reference and perspective;
- o provision of simulation or case-study opportunities to provide for individual discovery, analysis and problem solving;
- o opportunities for writing on topics related to foreign language pedagogy.

AREA II: ACQUISITION AND USE OF KNOWLEDGE

Guidelines

The coursework and experiences that comprise the liberal arts curriculum will develop:

1. An awareness of information sources and the ability to:
   a) identify information sources and assess source reliability;
   b) evaluate the thoroughness of reporting and the strength of arguments, and distinguish between fact and opinion.
2. The ability to analyze and synthesize new information with emphasis on the development of critical-thinking and study skills, including:
   a) identifying issues or problems and their causes, securing relevant information, and relating, comparing, or quantifying data from various sources;
   b) making decisions which are based on logical assumptions and which incorporate all pertinent information;
   c) recognizing personally appropriate and effective strategies for different types of learning.
3. The ability to work with and learn from a variety of media and technologies.

Discussion

The liberal arts component of the teacher's education should not only provide information, but foster intellectual curiosity in order to encourage individuals to become seekers of knowledge. This intellectual curiosity will most likely arise from experiences that help potential teachers acknowledge their responsibilities to themselves for their own learning. A knowledge base that does not remain static and confined but that continually expands and enriches perspectives will be that of the teacher who is able to bring the world into the classroom and to link the classroom to the world. The above statements, therefore, relate to skills that contribute to an ability and desire to learn. As such, they are not limited to programmatic issues of course offerings but to types of in-class experiences and opportunities--ways in which instruction is delivered. What is learned through the liberal arts study may ultimately be less important than how it is learned.

Indicators of program consistency with this guideline include:

- the availability and accessibility in all areas of study of a variety of types of information sources, print and non-print;
- encouragement of the use of multiple sources for obtaining information, including the exploration of non-traditional information sources;
- the provision in all areas of study of criteria for and guidance in evaluating the accuracy, authenticity, and completeness of information;
- instructional approaches which include clearly structured tasks that allow for learner independence in investigation and performance;
- programs in all subject areas that are designed to offer not only discrete information but also linkage and integration of concepts to provide for continual expansion of knowledge;
- opportunities for questioning and speculating in a context that acknowledges and supports a variety of appropriate answers;
- inclusion of interdisciplinary coursework or the planned incorporation of cross-disciplinary application of concepts;
- availability of and opportunities to use computers as information delivery and organization systems.

AREA III: LEADERSHIP

Guidelines

The coursework and experiences that comprise the liberal arts curriculum will develop:

1. initiative, the desire and ability to start projects independently and take action beyond what is necessarily called for;
2. skills in planning and organizing time, resources, setting, and sequence of activities for goal-derived task accomplishment;
3. utilization of both tactical and strategic decision-making.

Discussion

Teachers are expected to assume the responsibility of leadership, both within and outside their own disciplines. The above statements thus refer to the development of specific skills and characteristics that are necessary for knowledgeable and articulate individuals to carry out these leadership roles and to serve as classroom models for future leaders. Within the classroom, these skills translate into purposeful and planned instruction through clearly defined goals and a well-established yet flexible course of action to achieve these goals. Good leaders are good strategic decision-makers, able to plan alternative courses of action when time is available. They are also good tactical decision-makers: equipped to see options, take actions, and commit themselves in ongoing situations, where time for deliberation is limited and extensive information gathering is inappropriate.

Indicators of program consistency with these guidelines include:

- o coursework and seminars treating leadership characteristics and identifying individual leadership style;
- o opportunities to participate in shared decision-making activities on a range of topics and with varying degrees of constraint imposed on the group;
- o coursework in and practice with time and resource allocation and management for the attainment of specified goals and objectives;
- o instructional approaches that focus on identification of the probable consequences of specific courses of action;
- o opportunities to set performance goals, to plan courses of action and make decisions that will result in realization of the goals;
- o opportunities to participate in structured exercises and activities that focus upon the need for individual initiative, divergent thinking, and spontaneous decision-making;
- o opportunities to participate in social and professional activities beyond the classroom that call upon the candidate to exercise varying degrees of initiative, information gathering and processing, planning and organizing, goal-setting, shared and individual decision-making and attainment of closure during the process.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Programs for the development of foreign language teachers should have a plan and clearly-stated policies for recruitment, selection, and admission. The criteria for these should be published and available to potential applicants who wish to seek admission.

Introduction

The professional development component of the candidate's preservice education is composed of coursework and experiences that relate to the individual in the role of "teacher". Guidelines in this section focus on programmatic aspects that prepare candidates to respond to major questions in planning and implementing foreign language instruction:

1) The question of "why": understanding what it means to know another language and recognizing the values and benefits of such knowledge.
2) The question of "who": observing and analyzing learners and learning.
3) The question of "what" and "when": organizing the content of instruction to provide for effective teaching and learning.
4) The question of "how": providing appropriate, purposeful classroom experiences.
5) The question of "where": experiencing the system and setting in which formal education occurs.

AREA I: RATIONALE FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY

Guidelines

Programs provide instruction in the purposes for and benefits of foreign language study that includes:

1. information about the impact of competence in foreign languages on modern society and on one's own personal development;
2. emphasis on the importance of foreign language as it relates to the needs and interests of specific communities;
3. opportunities to develop skills in conveying the benefits of proficiency in another language to many different audiences (students, parents, administrators, business, and community);
4. opportunities to integrate this rationale in curricular and instructional decision-making.

Discussion

Programs have a responsibility to equip prospective teachers with information to help them become effective advocates for their profession. Teachers will be expected to keep abreast of future research and to interpret changes in society as they affect the role of foreign language study. Good programs will also provide opportunities for candidates to have direct experiences interacting with persons from other cultures.

Indicators of program consistency with this guideline include:

- availability of resource materials on rationales and language policy issues;
- opportunities for candidates to communicate the purposes and benefits of language study to others;
- planned interactions with people from cultures with language policies different from those in the United States;
- student participation in professional meetings on this topic.

AREA II: THEORIES OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING

Guidelines

Programs provide instruction in child development, models and theories of learning and their relationship to the development of foreign language competence. This includes information about:

1. theories of physical, emotional, cognitive, and linguistic development of children and adolescents;
2. the interrelationship of these processes in terms of developing competence in a foreign language and its relationship to other subject areas in the curriculum of schooling.

Discussion

It is important that programs present theories and models proposed to explain learning in general and that this information be related to models hypothesized for foreign language learning through curricular or instructional linkage. Achieving this requires that instruction be closely related to field experiences with the full range of student populations for which certification is sought. These direct experiences include contacts with students of varying ages, abilities, aptitudes, and physical conditions as well as diverse school settings (e.g., urban, suburban, rural), diverse socioeconomic and subcultural settings (e.g., teenage parents, latch-key children, non-English-speaking areas) and serve to analyze and link theories to the realities of the classroom, and other elements of the school curriculum.

Indicators of program consistency with this guideline include:

- courses and materials showing treatment of human development concepts as well as their relationships to foreign language learning;
- planned and frequent opportunities to relate general learning theory to specific aspects of foreign language learning and foreign language teaching behavior through individual projects or cross-college collaborative efforts;
- schedules of opportunities in the curriculum for observing and working in diverse school settings.

AREA III: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Guidelines

Programs provide instruction in the theories and processes of curriculum development and their application to foreign language education. This includes information about:

1. the role of curricular design in adapting the nature of the discipline to learner needs, interests and characteristics;
2. the objectives and characteristics of different curricular models and their applicability in foreign language education;
3. the rights and responsibilities of the teacher in making decisions about foreign language program planning.

Discussion

Programs emphasize the teacher role in curricular design and provide information about ways in which curricula are developed both in terms of processes and models. Foreign language curriculum planning is viewed as being ongoing, open to change, and a function of teacher involvement across levels, languages and disciplines. Aspects of professional development should include exploration of issues such as needs assessment, articulation, consensus, learner expectations, measureablility, and the role of textbooks and other instructional materials as resources in achieving curricular goals.

Indicators of program consistency with this goal include:

- o materials and syllabi that treat diverse models, objectives, and program formats;
- o opportunities to link knowledge of curriculum design and learning theory to specific foreign language program-planning efforts;
- o opportunities for writing objectives and lesson plans for achieving goals;
- o opportunities to evaluate materials in terms of their match with curricular objectives;
- o field experiences in which curricula and lesson plans can be implemented.

AREA IV: INSTRUCTION

Guidelines

Programs provide opportunities to acquire decision-making skills related to planning, managing and evaluating instruction. This includes information about and experiences in:

1. identifying the purpose and theoretical underpinnings of a variety of teaching strategies and anticipating the learning outcomes that result;
2. making critical decisions regarding planning for instruction, selecting materials, sequencing and executing learning activities;
3. evaluating effectively the total teaching-learning process, including daily interaction with students, continuous assessment of student learning, and self evaluation.

Discussion

Programs build the essential decision-making skills of prospective teachers by providing a knowledge and experience base for instruction which is derived from an up-to-date understanding of the second-language learning and teaching process. Programs provide for a weighing of advantages and disadvantages of alternative decisions so that candidates realize their role in achieving appropriate student behaviors. Programs are responsible for showing how research and experimentation have refined the practices of the past so that preservice teachers are aware of the necessity for continuous professional growth through inservice involvement.

Indicators of program consistency with this goal include:

- availability and accessibility of current literature in the areas of foreign language education, research on effective teaching and effective schools;
- multiple opportunities to select and experiment with instructional strategies and to evaluate results;
- structured formats for observing, assessing, and hypothesizing about classroom decisions through video taped or live classroom observations;
- coursework and experience in devising appropriate testing techniques;
- coursework in and effective models of classroom management: using grouping strategies, structuring tasks, giving directions, maximizing use of class time;
- practice in establishing progression in classroom activities;
- regular use of professional journals in the field of general and language-specific foreign language pedagogy;
- opportunities for use of learning/teaching devices: overhead projectors, video, computer software, language lab facilities;
- exploration of sources of instructional materials.

AREA V: THE INSTRUCTIONAL SETTING

Guidelines

Programs provide information about and experience in the secondary educational system, to include:

1. information about the roles and responsibilities of public schools in United States society;
2. examination of the roles and services of school district/state personnel: principals, guidance counselors, superintendents, school boards, foreign language supervisors, and State Department of education personnel;
3. awareness of protocols, reporting mechanisms, and rules governing the various functions of schools;
4. clinical and field experiences which provide contact with a wide range of students, settings, other subject areas and the many non-instructional aspects of life in schools;
5. a plan for integrating clinical and field experiences into all phases of the candidate's preparation;
6. procedures of and practice in self assessment.

Discussion

Programs may vary considerably in form and duration, but a common goal exists in an integrated approach which gradually increases the candidate's involvement in classroom decision-making. The tasks and responsibilities of prospective teachers build toward a culminating experience consisting of a sustained period of responsibility that reflects a full teaching load.

Indicators of program consistency with this goal include:

- o a plan that defines the number, scope, expectations and activities of clinical and field experiences;
- o clearly stated criteria for selection of cooperating teachers;
- o clearly stated role descriptions for cooperating teachers, student teachers and university supervisors during field experience;
- o evidence of planned contacts for the candidates with master foreign language teachers, school administrators, students and teachers in other subject areas;
- o evidence of a full range of experience for grades for which certification is sought;
- o frequent communication with the public schools.

AREA VI: FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Guidelines

For programs preparing teachers to teach foreign languages in elementary schools, the following additional guidelines are appropriate.

Programs provide information about and experience in the elementary educational system to include:

1. an understanding of first language development and its relation to second language learning in childhood;

2. the ability to teach reading and writing as developmental skills to learners acquiring literacy skills in their first language;

3. familiarity with the children's literature appropriate to the target culture;

4. knowledge of the elementary school curriculum and ability to teach or reinforce elementary school curricula through or in a foreign language;

5 knowledge of elementary school principles and practices, and the ability to apply such knowledge to foreign language instruction.

Discussion

The preparation of elementary school foreign language teachers insures that candidates can integrate foreign language within the context of the total elementary school program. Teacher candidates develop an understanding of the developing child, and particularly, the development of language and literacy skills in childhood. Sound foreign language instructions builds upon first language development in both the oral and written modes. Further, teachers are prepared to reinforce, enrich, or directly teach the elementary school content areas through the medium of the target language. Prospective elementary school foreign language teachers are enabled to perform their roles and responsibilities through extensive pre-service experiences at appropriate grade levels.

Indicators of program consistency with this goal include:

- o faculty who have demonstrated excellence in teaching foreign language in the elementary grades, in addition to demonstrating the requisite knowledge and skills necessary to prepare prospective teachers;
- o a plan which provides teacher candidates with prolonged and substantive field experiences at the appropriate grade levels;
- o clearly stated role descriptions for cooperating teachers, student teachers and university supervisors during field experience;
- o evidence of planned contacts for the candidates with master foreign language teachers, school administrators, students and teachers in other subject areas;
- o evidence of a full range of experience for grades which certification is sought;
- o frequent communication with the public schools.

AREA VII: FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION FACULTY

Guidelines

The faculty responsible for the foreign language education component of the candidate's professional development will:

1. be proficient in a foreign language;
2. have preparation and expertise in foreign language pedagogy;
3. have a record of excellence in language teaching;
4. maintain clear relationships with foreign language and education faculty and with school administrators and teachers.

SPECIALIST DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

The guidelines for specialist education detailed below address the areas of Language, Culture/Civilization, and Language and Communication Processes. The first set of guidelines focuses on the functional use of the four language skills-listening, speaking, reading and writing. The second deals with the acquisition of knowledge and appreciation of the totality of the foreign language culture and civilization. The third area concentrates on conceptual knowledge of the target language itself as well as a basic understanding of the principles of linguistics. For each of these components the program will provide pre-assessment, formative assessment, feedback, appropriate remediation, and summative evaluation. Program guidelines and the applicable evaluative measurements should be provided to candidates early in their program of study. Among the components of program implementation should be experiences incorporating application of technology (i.e. computers, film, video) to the aforementioned guidelines, as well as study abroad or its equivalent.

AREA I: LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Guidelines

The foreign language teacher education program provides the candidate opportunities to develop competence in the following skills to the degree indicated:

1. Speaking:
   a. satisfy the requirements of a broad variety of everyday, school and work situations;
   b. discuss concrete topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence;
   c. display some ability to support opinions, explain in detail and hypothesize;
   d. use communicative strategies, such as paraphrasing and circumlocution;
   e. use differentiated vocabulary and intonation to communicate fine shades of meaning.
2. Listening:
   a. understand the main ideas of most speech in a standard dialect;
   b. comprehend extended discourse of a general nature on a variety of topics beyond the immediate situation;
   c. understand some culturally implied meanings beyond the surface meanings of the text.
3. Reading:
   a. follow essential points of written discourse in areas of special interest and knowledge;
   b. comprehend facts in texts and make appropriate inferences;
   c. understand parts of text which are conceptually abstract and linguistically complex, texts which treat unfamiliar topics or situations, and texts which involve aspects of target language culture;
   d. comprehend a variety of texts, including literary texts, and demonstrate an emerging awareness of the aesthetic properties of language and literary style.
4. Writing:
   a. write routine social correspondence and join sentences in simple discourse of at least several paragraphs in length on familiar topics;
   b. write cohesive summaries and resumes;
   c. write narratives and descriptions of a factual nature, drawing from personal experience, readings and other verbal or non-verbal stimuli.

Discussion

It is incumbent on foreign language teacher education programs to provide the kinds of experiences, both in and out of the classroom, which will permit the candidate to develop functional performance in the language at a level equivalent to the Advanced Plus level on the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines in listening, speaking, and reading, and at the Advanced level in writing.

Programs should be examined in terms of progressive and continuous attention to the development of language proficiency. Approaches which confine language and grammar study to lower levels with culture and literature at higher levels may be less effective in producing the levels of language use outlined above.

Indicators of program consistency with this guideline include:

- the presence of written goals for each level of language study and accurate placement instruments;
- opportunities to hear, speak, read and write authentic language in all foreign language courses;
- the presence of language courses which focus on the totality of communication in addition to those which focus specifically on culture, grammar, literature and pronunciation;
- a clearly articulated sequence of courses that balances culture, grammar, language use and literature throughout the major's course of study;
- opportunities for intensive language experiences in this country and/or through study or living-abroad programs;
- use of appropriate evaluative instruments to measure candidate performance. An example of such would be the Oral Proficiency Interview to measure the speaking component;
- effective use of available technology for providing authentic language models and efficient learning.

AREA II: CULTURE AND CIVILIZATION

Guidelines

The foreign language teacher education program provides the candidate opportunities to:

1. discuss, research and reflect upon the daily living patterns, societal structure, institutions, and value systems of the people who speak the language;
2. explore the variability of cultural concepts;
3. obtain an overview of the literatures of the people who use the language with an emphasis on contemporary writers and an in-depth experience with some major author or theme;
4. obtain an overview of the cultures and civilizations from a variety of perspectives, including the historical, geographical, political, and artistic;
5. develop skills in processing information that promote the understanding and interpretation of cultures and civilizations. These include:
   a) observing, comparing and inquiring about culture phenomena;
   b) analyzing and hypothesizing about cultural phenomena;
   c) synthesizing and determining the generalizability of cultural phenomena.

Discussion

As specialists in the area of foreign languages, candidates entering the teaching profession must not only be linguistically proficient but culturally proficient as well. Programs designed to develop cultural awareness will not only include information about the cultures of the people who speak the language but acknowledge the limitations and datedness of any corpus of information. To this end, programs should integrate a broad range of experiences designed to acquaint candidates with the everyday life and artistic accomplishments of peoples, as well as the independent ability to "process" and interpret cultural phenomena encountered directly or vicariously. In addition, programs should be designed to allow candidates to see the relationships that necessarily exist between language, literature and culture between both the native and target cultures.

Indicators of program consistency with this guideline include:

- o materials and instructional approaches which present authentic cultural contexts;
- o course requirements in the area of culture and civilization as well as literature;
- o opportunities to acquire knowledge and contact with cultures, literatures and civilizations of countries, other than the "mother country;"
- o opportunities to experience the cultures, literatures and civilizations in their own environment;
- o opportunities to study children's and adolescent literature of both target and "mother" cultures where appropriate;
- o opportunities to enroll in courses in other departments (history, anthropology, sociology, art, etc.) for content not available in the foreign language department;
- o opportunities to use modern technology (computers, film, video, interactive video, etc.) to study cultures, literatures and civilizations;
- o instructional approaches that utilize simulations, incident analyses and other discovery and problem-solving techniques geared toward the explanation and resolution of cross-cultural conflict.

AREA III: LANGUAGE ANALYSIS

Guidelines

The program provides the candidate opportunities to acquire and demonstrate:

1. knowledge of the nature of language and the significance of language change and variation which occur over time, space, and social class;
2. knowledge of theories of first and second language acquisition and learning;
3. knowledge of the phonological, morphological, syntactical, and lexical components of the target language;
4. knowledge of how communication occurs in real life, to include:
   a. the contribution of grammatical and lexical elements in expressing basic funtions and notions of the target language within the context in which they occur;
   b. analysis of discourse and communication strategies.

Discussion

It is important that programs prepare candidates to understand both the elements of and the totality of language in order that they be able not only to explain grammar and know when and how to analyze and correct learner errors, but also to understand and implement appropriate discourse strategies and establish meaningful contexts necessary for teaching communication. Programs should thus be evaluated in terms of how they are preparing future teachers to view and explain grammar as it contributes to real-life communication.

Indicators of program consistency with this guideline include:

- o instructional approaches that reflect language as it is used to perform functions in real-life contexts;
- o opportunities to examine and use communicative strategies associated with the acts of reading, writing, speaking, and listening;
- o opportunities to examine features of discourse;
- o opportunities to examine cultural connotations at the word level and at the discourse level;
- o opportunities for coursework in foreign language or other departments in at least one of the following areas: communication theory, second-language acquisition, discourse analysis, psycholinguistics, socio-linguistics, applied lingustics.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In 1983 the National Advisory Board on International Education Programs, stated that:

> An emerging consensus places the study of foreign languages and cultures alongside the five "basics" of English, mathematics, computer science, social studies, and the natural sciences as fundamental components of a sound education.[1]

Several other reports were published the same year — *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform; Making the Grade;* and *High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America.* All these reports echoed the message of an earlier report, *Strength Through Wisdom,* — monolingual Americans face serious problems as they participate in the international political, economic, and cultural activities which are increasingly part of their day-to-day existence.[2]

The authors of the 1983 reports argued strongly that language proficiency should be the goal of foreign language programs. They emphasized that programs that are oriented toward the development of proficiency do more than teach students about a language. Such programs develop in students a level of cultural awareness. They introduce students to the complexities of the international environment. They encourage a high level of expressive ability. Acquiring proficiency in another language is demanding — often requiring at least four years of study. Achieving this goal will require the cooperation of educators at every level.

This Exemplary Practice volume, *Foreign Language,* is designed to help teachers undertake the task of developing proficiency among their students. Several comprehensive articles are presented that address issues of concern and interest to foreign language teachers at both the elementary and secondary levels. They are representative of an enormous body of research on second-language acquisition, teaching, and educational materials. In section one, Introduction, Morris Freedman asks a question prominent in the minds of many Americans: "Should Americans learn to speak foreign languages?" This editorial is followed by the results of a nationwide survey of foreign language teachers' concerns, conducted by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and Southern Conference on Language Teaching.

Language laboratories have declined in use in recent years, and computers can replace them as technical supplements to classroom instruction. Carefully selected computer software packages offer teachers a versatile instructional tool. In section two, Computers in the Foreign Language Classroom, David H. Wyatt provides a thorough investigation of computer-assisted language learning, and offers suggestions for today's existing software and tomorrow's needs. Lisa B. Cornick's software evaluation model emphasizes the need to choose packages that suit individual situations.

Guidelines for the development of proficiency were established by ACTFL in response to the contents of the report *Strength through Wisdom.* In section three, Marjorie Bingham Wesche suggests that communicative tests are a viable alternative to these guidelines, which are presented and discussed by Judith Liskin-Gasparro and David V. Hiple.

Program Design, section four, offers insight and direction into aspects of program planning from curriculum and textbooks to non-traditional approaches like Suggestopedia and the Silent Way. The article by Laura K. Heilenman and Isabelle M. Kaplan provides a basis for developing a proficiency-based curriculum and offers suggestions about future trends in language education. Jacqueline Benevento addresses the issue of textbook selection using a rating scale that stresses authenticity, opportunities for communication, and integration of communication and culture skills. Three second language techniques — full and partial immersion, and foreign language in the elementary school — are discussed in the report of a study of elementary school French and Spanish students conducted by Russell Campbell et al. A parent-run foreign language program in Oklahoma is described as a way financially-strapped school districts can offer foreign language at the elementary school level.

Articles presented in the subheading Programs and Course Ideas review a number of innovative classroom activities. Alice C. Omaggio and Patricia C. Boylan review their efforts to elicit personal expression from their students; Otto describes a program that applies language to business career training in the form of simulated trade fairs; and Doyle describes Great Britain's foreign language programming on the BBC. Robert C. Lafayette and Lorraine A. Strasheim summarize and compare several nontraditional methodologies. They make suggestions to help the classroom teacher apply them in a standard context.

One of the goals of foreign language instruction is to enhance students' understanding of culture — their own as well as that of another country. In section five, Sidney L. Hahn describes a pilot study designed for elementary students to instill a sense of world citizenship. Alastair Pennycook analyzes paralanguage as a crucial aspect of language, and Rex C. Dahl describes a computer-based model for teaching culture. Section six, Appendices, provides reference materials of interest to foreign language educators.

Foreign language educators are in the position of providing students with a basic skill that will allow them to appreciate and communicate in the global society in which they live. We hope that this volume will pique teachers' curiosities and inspire them to question and explore.

—Martin L. Wood, editor

1. *Critical Needs in International Education: Recommendations for Action: A Report to the Secretary of Education.* The National Advisory Board on International Education, Washington, D.C., Department of Education, 1983, p. 2.

2. *Strength through Wisdom: A Critique of U.S. Capability.* The President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, 1979.

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5	**Reports results of 1982 survey of foreign language teachers, chairmen of outstanding high school programs and state foreign language coordinators. Outlines their most pressing concerns about foreign language teaching and learning.**	Cooper, Thomas C., "A Survey of Teacher Concerns," *Foreign Language Annals*, vol. 18, no. 1, February 1985, pp. 21-24.
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27	**Provides do-it-yourself checklist for analyzing quality and appropriateness of foreign language software.**	Cornick, Lisa B., "Evaluating Foreign Language CAI: A Checklist," *Unterrichtspraxis*, vol. 17, no. 2, Fall 1984, pp. 315-318.
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51	**Describes history and structure of ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines, their origins and justification. Provides suggestions for testing and insights into curriculum applications.**	Liskin-Gasparro, Judith E., "The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines: Gateway to Testing and Curriculum," *Foreign Language Annals*, vol. 17, no. 5, October 1984, pp. 475-489.

67 **Outlines and discusses the development of Provisional Proficiency Guidelines which followed report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies.**

Hiple, David V., "A Progress Repor the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelir 1982-1986," in Heidi Byrnes a Michael Canale, eds., *Defining and veloping Proficiency: Guidelines, Imp mentations, and Concep* (Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbo Co., 1987), pp. 5-14.

79 **Revised set of ACTFL Guidelines.**

"ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines 1986, in Heidi Byrnes and Michael Canal eds., *Defining and Developing Proficier cy: Guidelines, Implementations, an Concepts.* (Lincolnwood, IL: Nationa Textbook Co., 1987), p. 15-24.

91 ## PROGRAM DESIGN

93 ### Curriculum and Textbooks

95 **Discusses reasons for and objectives of a proficiency-based curriculum. Describes the curricular model stressing varying levels of control, including teaching and learning at each level, and offers course ideas and suggestions for the future.**

Heilenman, Laura K. and Isabelle M. Kaplan, "Proficiency in Practice: The Foreign Language Curriculum," in Charles J. James, ed., *Foreign Language Proficiency in the Classroom and Beyond* (Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Co., 1985), pp. 55-78.

119 **Outlines five new directions foreign language educators need to take to meet current increase in student interest. Included are linking foreign language to international studies and teaching language for career purposes.**

Rivers, Wilga M., "A New Curriculum for New Purposes," *Foreign Language Annals*, vol. 18, no. 1, February 1985, pp. 37-43.

127 **Relates common teacher criticisms of textbooks. Provides criterion for evaluating foreign language textbooks, with emphasis on opportunity for meaningful communication and a balance in practice of all language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.**

Benevento, Jacqueline, "Choosing and Using Textbooks," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Chicago, IL, November 16-18, 1984.

143 ### Elementary Programs

145 **Reviews study conducted among elementary school French and Spanish students, comparing proficiency attained through partial immersion, full immersion, and FLES. Performance on MLA Subtest used as criterion for comparison.**

Campbell, Russell N., et al., "Foreign Language Learning in the Elementary Schools: A Comparison of Three Language Programs," The Modern Language Journal, vol. 69, no. 1, Spring 1985, pp. 44-54.

157 **Describes innovative use of parents in elementary school second language program. Method of instruction based on Asher's Total Physical Response technique.**

Editors, "This Parent-Led Program Teaches Kids Foreign Languages for No Cost," *American School Board Journal*, vol. 172, no. 1, January 1985, p. 37.

159 ## Programs and Course Ideas

161 **Provides a collection of suggestions for encouraging more personal expression of opinions, feelings, ideas, among second language students.**

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189 **History and description of BBC televised language programs, beginning in the 1960s and continuing to the present. Details production concerns, advantages and limitations, and future possibilities.**

Doyle, Terry, "BBC Foreign Language Teaching Programmes," *Media in Education and Development*, vol. 17, no. 4, December 1984, pp. 209-213.

195 ## Non-Traditional Methodologies

197 **Explains techniques of Total Physical Response, the Silent Way, Counseling-Learning, Suggestopedia, the Comprehension Approach, and the Natural Approach. Suggests similarities and practical means of applying selected aspects of each to the standard sequence.**

Lafayette, Robert C. and Lorraine A. Strasheim, "The Standard Sequence and the Non-Traditional Methodologies," *Foreign Language Annals*, vol. 17, no. 6, December 1984, pp. 567-574.

205 # TEACHING FOREIGN CULTURE

207 **Presents a pilot study designed to introduce elementary school students to cross-cultural similarities and differences as a means of enhancing global education and discouraging negative cultural stereotypes.**

Hahn, Sidney L., "Building the Foundation for Global Citizenship: A Pilot Project," *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. 67, no. 2, Summer 1983, pp. 152-158.

215 **Defines paralanguage, overlooked yet important aspects of languages, including components such as kinesics, proxemics and paraverbal features. Discusses significance to communicative competence and applications in the second language classroom.**

Pennycook, Alastair, "Actions Speak Louder Than Words: Paralanguage, Communication, and Education," TESOL Quarterly, vol. 19, no. 2, June 1985, pp. 259-282.

239 **Discusses nonverbal culture learning and provides several models for application in computer-based technology. Stresses use of interactive video reference material.** Dahl, Rex C., "High Technology, Language Learning, and Nonverbal Cultural Literacy," *Unterrichtspraxis*, vol. 17, no. 1, Spring 1984, p. 66-75.

249 **APPENDICES**

251 **Appendix A: lists American and Canadian foreign language education serials, with subscription information where available.** Wood, Martin L., appendix prepared for use in this volume, November 1985.

253 **Appendix B: lists organizations for foreign language educators and groups that promote international education.** Wood, Martin L., appendix prepared for use in this volume, November 1985.

257 **Appendix C: lists ethnic organizations whose aim is to enhance cross-cultural understanding.** Wood, Martin L., appendix prepared for use in this volume, November 1985.

Elementary Programs

Foreign Language Learning in the Elementary Schools: A Comparison of Three Language Programs

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RUSSELL N. CAMPBELL, TRACY C. GRAY, NANCY C. RHODES and MARGUERITE ANN SNOW

RESEARCHERS HAVE LONG DEBATED THE MOST EFfective methods for learning a foreign language.[1] The debate has gained momentum given the growing resurgence of interest in foreign language instruction. The much heralded report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies underscored the need for reinstituting foreign language study throughout a student's educational experience.[2]

Subsequent commission reports, while focusing on the general decline in the quality of our nation's schools, have also addressed the lacunae in foreign language studies. "If an unfriendly foreign power had attempted to impose on America the mediocre educational performance that exists today, we might well have viewed it as an act of war," states the National Commission on Excellence in Education.[3] In a series of recommendations, the Commission notes that "achieving proficiency in a foreign language ordinarily requires from four to six years of study and should, therefore, be started in the elementary grades." Similarly, the Twentieth Century Fund's Task Force on Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Policy notes that "our nation's public school student (should) have the opportunity to acquire proficiency in a second language."[4]

As interest in foreign language instruction continues, many educators, school administrators, and other policy makers have turned to the research on the efficacy of different language programs. A review of the literature reveals that a few studies were conducted in the mid-sixties that addressed some of the fundamental questions about the effectiveness of different foreign language programs.[5] Of late, however, there has been a paucity of qualitative research which examines the questions concerning foreign language instruction; e.g., what types of elementary school programs are offered to teach foreign languages? What are the goals of these programs? How effective are these programs at meeting their stated objectives? When should students begin to study foreign language?

These questions are examined in detail in the present study. The research examines the efficacy of foreign language programs at the elementary school level. The study provides heretofore unavailable information that permits a comparison of three foreign language programs currently found in fifteen schools in the United States. These comparisons are based on measured achievement in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in French and Spanish. The following questions were examined in this research effort: 1) how do foreign language programs (FLES, partial immersion, and immersion) differ in terms of (a) total time or intensity of foreign language instruction and (b) use or non-use of the foreign language to teach core curriculum subjects, e.g., math, social studies, etc.? 2) how do different foreign language programs (FLES, partial immersion, immersion) affect student performance on a standardized language achievement test? 3) how does variation among schools (within a given language program) affect student performance? More specifically, variation among schools was examined in terms of (a) program longevity (i.e., years in existence) and continuity (staff/administration turnover), (b) articulation at the individual school level and within the school system, and (c) socioeconomic status of partici-

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pating students;[6] 4) what is the correlation between self-assessment of language skills and actual student performance on a standardized language achievement test?

In the conclusion of this paper, the implications of our research will be discussed in light of the potential benefits of establishing foreign language programs in the elementary schools. This discussion will focus on the probable outcomes of the three approaches examined in terms of language development in the foreign language classroom. In addition, the conclusion will address certain audiences for whom the findings should be of special interest, particularly within the context of current public policy debates about the role of foreign language instruction in the American educational system.

SUBJECTS

The subjects included a total of 382 elementary school students (twenty-seven students were in the seventh grade) who had studied French or Spanish for a minimum of four years and a maximum of seven years. The students were selected nationally from fifteen schools that teach foreign languages using one of three approaches: 1) immersion; 2) partial immersion; and 3) foreign language in the elementary school (FLES). The schools were geographically dispersed throughout the country and the subjects were drawn from a wide range of socioeconomic backgrounds. Of the total participating schools, twelve were public and three were private. Table I presents a breakdown of the student sample by program and target language.

The salient characteristics of each of the three groups of students who participated in this research effort are as follows. The 179 immersion students included in the study represent the most comprehensive sampling of students in the United States who have been involved in French and Spanish immersion programs for at least four years.

TABLE I
Participants in Study

	Immersion	Partial Immersion	FLES
French	33	0	83
Spanish	146	98	22
Total	179	98	105

The ninety-eight partial immersion students included all such students in the United States who have been involved in some type of partial immersion program for at least five years. All of these partial immersion students were drawn from the same school district. No other district in the country has students who have been involved in partial immersion for five or more years.[7]

The 105 FLES students were selected from four school districts. Three of the schools were private and one was public. Although there are thousands of schools that offer some type of FLES program, this study sampled a limited number that offer a complete sequence of foreign language instruction from grades K-6 (thus having students who have studied for four or more years).

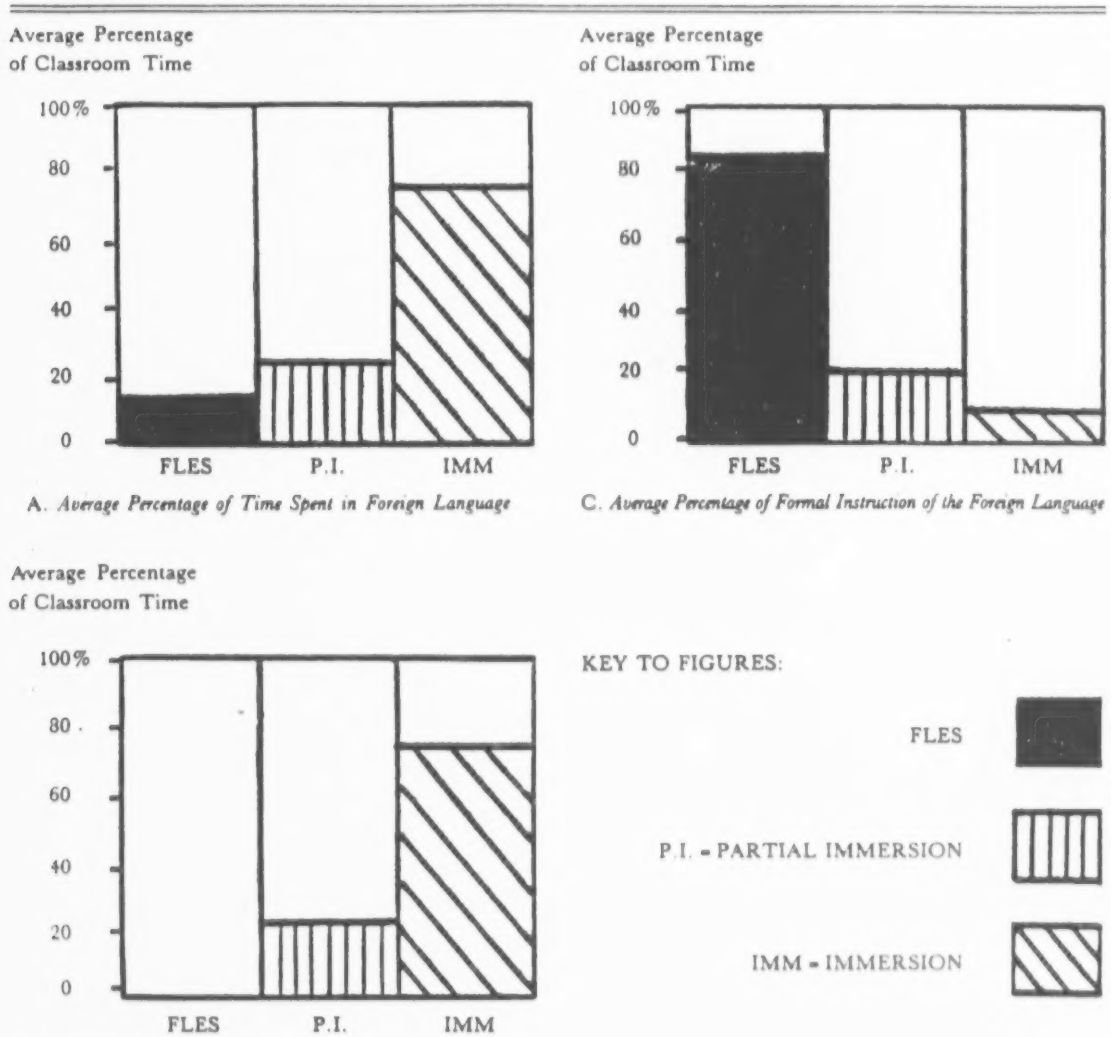
FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

One objective of this research effort was to identify in detail the characteristics of the three types of elementary school foreign language programs. An examination of Figure 1 reveals that the programs differed in three fundamental areas: 1) the amount of time spent per day in the study of the foreign language; 2) the language used by the teacher (English or the foreign language); and 3) whether or not the students are taught basic subjects (math, science, social studies, etc.) in the foreign language.

As can be seen from Figure 1, the three programs shared the following characteristics:

Immersion. Starting in kindergarten, children are taught most of their subjects in the foreign language. That language is not taught as a subject per se, but is used as the medium for teaching the other subjects. English language arts are introduced in second or third grade, and the number of subjects taught in English is gradually increased until the sixth grade. Immersion sets the highest proficiency goal of all the programs. The goal is that students master the material in the regular curriculum as well as become "functionally fluent" in the foreign language. Thus, sixth graders should be able to communicate in the foreign language *almost* as well as children their age in French or Spanish speaking countries. Native-like competence was the original objective of pilot immersion pro-

FIGURE 1
Summary of Three Distinguishing Programmatic Features



A. *Average Percentage of Time Spent in Foreign Language*

C. *Average Percentage of Formal Instruction of the Foreign Language*

B. *Average Percentage of Use of Foreign Language to Teach Core Curriculum Subjects*

grams in Canada; this projection has been revised in recent years.[8]

Partial Immersion. This program type has characteristics of both immersion and FLES, and the proficiency goals fall somewhere between the two. Like immersion, a portion of the school curriculum is taught in the foreign language. Like FLES, a portion of the school day is devoted to formal language instruction. In partial immersion, one typically teaches up to fifty percent of the school subjects in the foreign language. For the purpose of this study, however, the definition of partial immersion was broadened to include schools that teach foreign language per se for at least seventy minutes a day, during which time only the foreign language is spoken. Thus, a range of partial immersion programs is represented in this study.

FLES. While the proficiency goals are not as ambitious as those of immersion, FLES programs emphasize oral communication and set more precise goals than their forerunners in the 1960s. The main goal is for students to acquire

a certain level of listening and speaking skills (depending on the program) and an awareness of the foreign culture. Reading and writing skills may also be emphasized in some programs. In general, the degree of proficiency anticipated in a particular FLES program depends on the amount of time available for language instruction. Typically, the instructor teaches in English. FLES programs in this study taught language for twenty to forty-five minutes daily.

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS AND SURVEY FORMS

Foreign Language Proficiency Tests. The French and Spanish versions (LA) of the *Modern Language Association Cooperative Test* (1963; hereafter *MLA Test*) were administered to subjects to assess proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The *MLA Test* was developed in 1963 for use in secondary schools and universities. It was selected because it is the only available standardized foreign language assessment instrument that tests the four language skills.

Given the fact that our study focused on language learning in the elementary schools, the question arose as to the appropriateness of the *MLA Test* for use with these school children. Thus, prior to the administration of the language measure for this research effort, a pilot study was conducted in April, 1982 with fifth and sixth graders who had been in an immersion program for five years. This pilot study sought to verify that the test was, in fact, appropriate for the younger age group. It was important to determine if the elementary schoolers could indeed understand the directions on the test and could perform the required tasks. The results from this pilot study indicated that the test could be used with younger students, for they experienced little trouble with the mechanics of the test.[9]

The *MLA Test* consists of four subtests. The *listening* subtest measures comprehension skills via multiple choice questions on a cassette tape. The *speaking* subtest includes word repetitions, oral reading, and picture description. The students' oral language responses are recorded and analyzed by native speakers of the foreign language. The *reading* subtest contains fifty multiple choice questions based on short passages or fill-in-the-blank sentences. The *writing* subtest includes fifty items which require the student to fill in verb tenses, make grammatical corrections, and write a short dialogue.

Student Information and Self-Assessment Form. A student form was developed to collect information on each subject with regard to: age, grade, place of birth, number of years spent studying the foreign language, and reasons for continued language study. In addition, all students were asked to evaluate their language skills in speaking, understanding, reading, and writing. This information was used to examine the relationship between students' self-rating and their objective test scores.

PROCEDURE

The *MLA Test* was administered at the end of the 1983 school year at ten school sites by project staff and at five school sites by the classroom teachers. All participating students were asked to complete the listening, reading, and writing sections of the exam. In two schools, the teachers decided that portions of the writing section were beyond the capabilities of their fourth graders, thus a total of forty-two students were not required to complete the writing section. A subsample of approximately thirteen percent of the students was randomly selected to complete the speaking section of the assessment measure.

DATA ANALYSIS

The *MLA Test* was scored manually and the results from the speaking subtest were evaluated by fluent speakers of French and Spanish. Given the complexity of the database, the analysis was conducted on a mainframe computer. A nested analysis was performed to determine if there was a significant difference among the three types of language programs. In addition, a two-way analysis of variance was performed to determine the significance of cross terms included in the study. A Spearman's Rank Order Correlation was performed to determine the strength of the relationship between student self-assessment and performance on the language assessment measure.

RESULTS

The results from the *MLA Test* and the student self-assessment survey are presented for

each of the research questions addressed in the study. For the purpose of clarity, the French and Spanish results will be discussed separately. The *MLA Test* has the same format for the two language versions. The tests, however, were not developed for comparative purposes, thus any such comparisons could not be considered appropriate or valid. Two types of French programs were included in this study (FLES and immersion), while three types of Spanish programs were examined (FLES, partial immersion, and immersion). The test results are presented in terms of mean percentile scores which are based on the original norming group of high school students.

Results of the MLA Test. Is there a significant difference in student performance on the *MLA Test* due to variation in language programs?

French students. Table II presents the mean percentile scores on the four subtests for FLES and immersion students. A clear pattern of overall student performance is evident from these findings. Students in the French immersion programs significantly outperformed their FLES peers on all four language tests by a score of more than two to one. For example, on the reading subtest, immersion students scored at the seventy-seventh percentile and FLES students at the twenty-second percentile. This difference was significant at the .05 level using the Scheffe test.

An examination of Figure 2 presents a graphic display of the difference between the two programs. Several findings are of particular interest. The results from the listening test reveal a significant difference of sixty-four percentile points between the FLES and immersion (fourteen and eighty, respectively). This pattern is repeated on the writing subtest; FLES students had a mean percentile score of nine, compared with immersion students who obtained a mean score of forty.

How can one account for the relatively consistent pattern of differences between the two programs? Clearly, the findings indicate that the amount and type of exposure to a foreign language has a positive effect on student performance. In fact, an additional analysis revealed that students who had studied French in immersion programs for four to six years outperformed their FLES counterparts who had studied French for seven to nine years. This difference can be attributed to the fact that students in the French immersion programs receive an average of seventy-five percent of their total instruction per week in the foreign language. This is in contrast with the students in the French FLES programs who receive an average of ten percent per week. Not only is the instruction time substantially greater, but the nature of the experience is decidedly different. Students in the immersion programs use the second language to study content courses in the core curriculum.

The percentile scores can also be used to compare performance of the elementary school students with high school students who comprised the original norming group. For example, French immersion students scored at the eightieth percentile in listening, which means that eighty percent of the high school students in the norming group fell below that point on this subtest. In the FLES group, fourteen percent of the high school students scored lower in listening. Immersion students also ranked very high in comparison to high school students in speaking and reading, with scores at the ninety-ninth and seventy-seventh percentiles, respectively.

Spanish students. Table III displays the mean percentile scores on the four subtests for Spanish FLES, partial immersion, and immersion. Similar to the French programs, the differences between the immersion and FLES programs on the four subtests are highly significant: Spanish immersion students outperformed the FLES students by more than two to one in terms of their percentile rankings. These differences were found to be significant at the .05 level using a Scheffe test.

More specifically, students in the FLES programs reached the twenty-second percentile on the listening subtest as compared with the thirty-ninth percentile for partial immersion and the eighty-eighth for immersion. On the reading subtest, student scores fell in the same pattern: FLES at the fourteenth percentile; partial immersion at the twenty-seventh percentile; and immersion at the seventy-fifth percentile. These percentile scores, as depicted in Figure 3, clearly show that the immersion students succeeded at the upper percentile levels on all four subtests.

Students in the FLES program, which places a major emphasis on the development of oral language skills, performed notably well on the

FIGURE 2

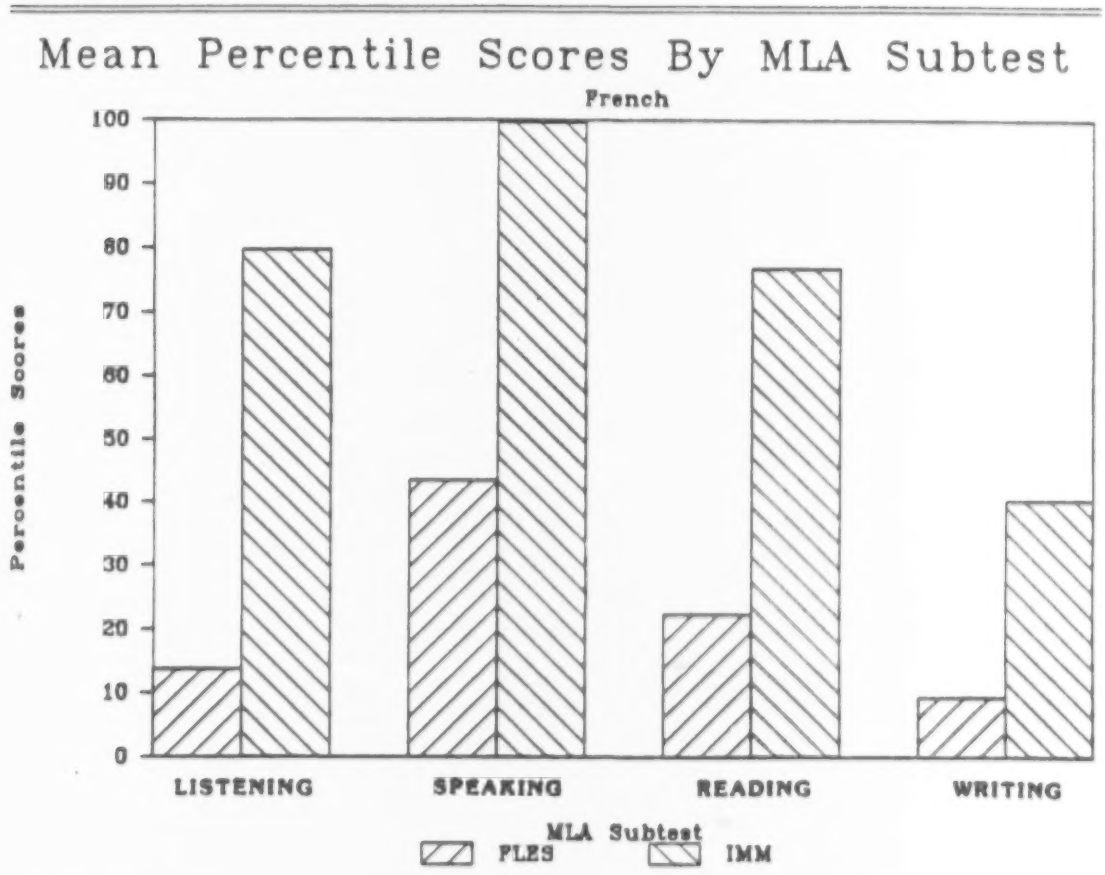


TABLE II
Overall Mean Percentile Scores for French FLES and Immersion Programs by MLA Subtest

Subtests	Number of Students	Percentile Mean	Stand. Dev.
French FLES			
Listening	83	14	23.361
Speaking	11	43	40.23
Reading	83	22	21.48
Writing	83	9	17.14
French Immersion			
Listening	33	80	25.73
Speaking	11	99	.32
Reading	33	77	24.99
Writing	33	40	35.78

speaking section of the test. Although these students were outperformed by their peers in the partial and total immersion programs, they had a mean percentile score of sixty-five. These results indicate that students in the Spanish FLES program performed as well or better than sixty-five percent of the original norming group of high school students.

The findings from the speaking subtest have to be interpreted with caution due to the small sample size and the restrictive range of the original norming sample. The results of a second analysis of the speaking data revealed that the Spanish immersion students evidenced a stronger ability than their partial immersion or FLES peers to use the foreign language for communicative purposes. The students in the partial immersion did substantially better than their FLES peers despite the FLES program focus on oral development. While the results are far from conclusive, they provide a window to the potential communicative skills of these foreign language students.

In comparing FLES and partial immersion, students in the partial immersion performed

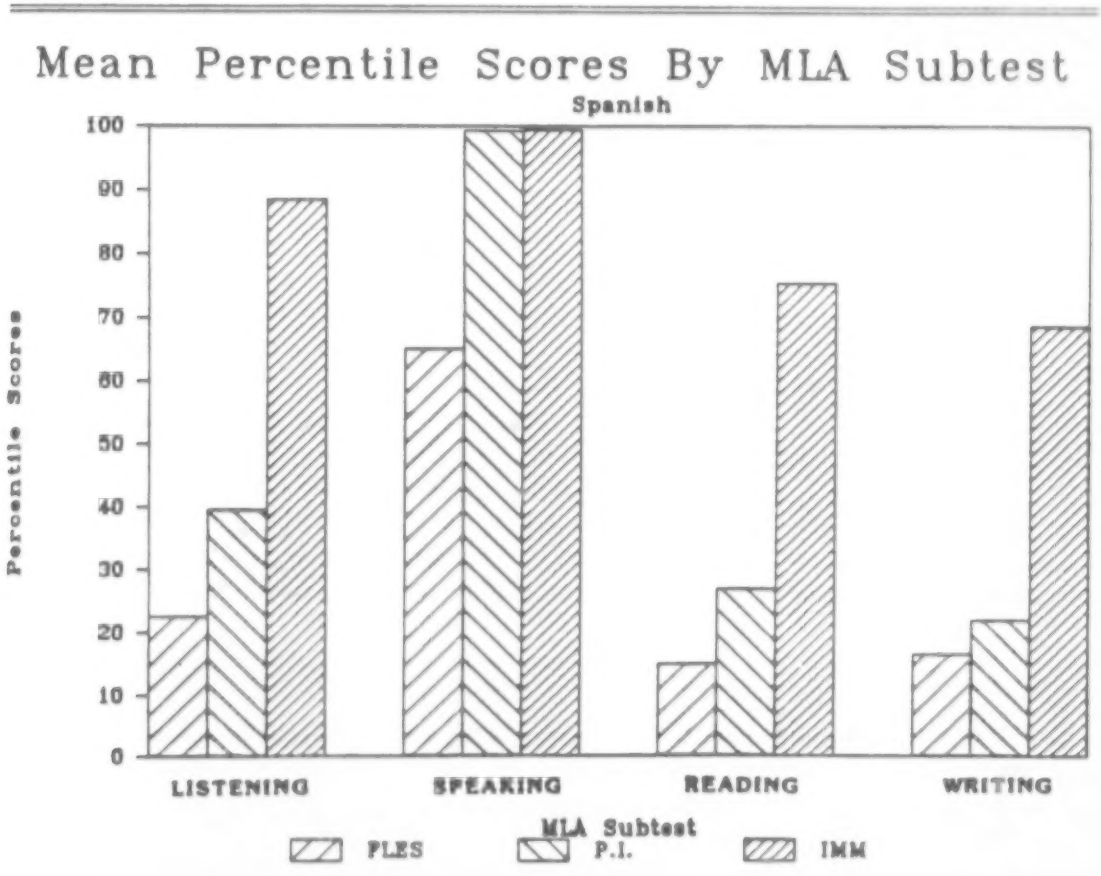
TABLE III
Overall Mean Percentile Scores for Spanish FLES, Partial Immersion, and Immersion Programs by MLA Subtest

Subtests	Number of Students	Percentile Mean	Stand. Dev.
Spanish FLES			
Listening	22	22	16.67
Speaking	3	65	31.60
Reading	22	14	6.92
Writing	22	16	13.78
Spanish Partial Immersion			
Listening	98	39	26.89
Speaking	8	99	.42
Reading	98	27	22.53
Writing	98	21	22.00
Spanish Immersion			
Listening	143	88	13.22
Speaking	18	99	.46
Reading	143	75	20.08
Writing	146	69	22.66

better on the test overall. These differences, however, were significant only on the listening and speaking sections of the test. Finally, a comparison of Spanish immersion and partial immersion revealed significant differences in student performance on the listening, reading, and writing subtests.

How can one account for the relatively consistent pattern of differences among the three programs? Clearly, the findings indicate that the amount of exposure to a foreign language does have positive effect on student performance. As was noted earlier, the average amount of foreign language instruction differs substantially for FLES and immersion students. In the case of the Spanish programs, students in immersion programs receive approximately four and a half hours (seventy-five percent) of instruction per day in the foreign language. In contrast, students in FLES programs receive an average of thirty to forty minutes (ten per-

FIGURE 3



cent) of instruction per day in Spanish. Quantification of the amount of exposure received by students in the partial immersion program is difficult given the wide variation among the five participating schools selected for this study. The range of time spent using Spanish in these programs is one and a half to three hours (twenty-three to sixty percent) of instruction time per day.

Is there a significant difference in student performance among schools that have the same type of program? To determine if differences among the schools within the programs were statistically significant, a nested analysis of variance was performed with program and school within program as the two factors. In addition, an analysis of variance was performed which included sex, grade, and other cross terms. The results of this analysis revealed that there were not confounding factors in this study. Both factors proved to be significant sources of variation at the .05 level.

French students. Table IV indicates significant differences among the schools within the same type of program. For example, on the listening subtest, the mean percentile scores for FLES and immersion schools ranged from two to twenty-two and sixty-three to ninety-eight, respectively. In this case, the differences were significant between the programs, but also within the five schools. This is also the case for the writing subtest, where the distribution of scores is significant both at the program and school levels.

How do these findings affect the interpretation of the data? It means that some inferences drawn about differences in student performance may be due to the type of foreign language program as well as to individual school factors.

The significant differences within the French programs are attributable to several factors. Data collected during a series of site visits to the individual schools revealed variation in terms of program longevity, articulation between grades, and rate of teacher turnover. For example, the immersion program at school FI-2 was established in 1974, and has had the same principal and little turnover among teachers. This program continuity has facilitated a well-planned articulation of language study between grades. In contrast, the program at school FI-1 was established in 1978 and students have had to deal with a different teacher each year who

TABLE IV
Subtest Mean Percentile Scores by School for French Programs

	School*	Number of Students	Percentile	S.D.
Listening				
FLES	FF-1	16	22	28.40
	FF-2	7	2	1.83
	FF-3	60	13	22.75
IMM	FI-1	17	63	26.10
	FI-2	16	98	2.24
Speaking				
FLES	FF-1	3	39	49.43
	FF-2	3	26	30.04
	FF-3	5	56	43.92
IMM	FI-1	5	99	.38
	FI-2	6	99	.25
Reading				
FLES	FF-1	16	28	27.51
	FF-2	7	17	9.13
	FF-3	60	21	20.68
IMM	FI-1	17	58	21.88
	FI-2	16	97	2.10
Writing				
FLES	FF-1	16	14	24.76
	FF-2	7	4	1.35
	FF-3	60	9	15.60
IMM	FI-1	17	9	10.20
	FI-2	16	74	17.04

*School Code: To ensure confidentiality of participating schools, the following code is used throughout the report. The first letter refers to language (F = French). The second letter refers to program type (F = FLES, I = Immersion). The subsequent number refers to a school within a particular program.

was unfamiliar with the program curricula. Several studies on immersion programs show that continuity and articulation of language study are important factors in the success of the program.[10]

Within-school differences for the French FLES program are not significant on any of the four subtests. The greatest spread of mean percentile scores within the program was found on the speaking test. The other scores indicate a strong degree of homogeneity among the three French FLES schools. This pattern is attributed to the similarity of program design and implementation among the three schools. All of the FLES schools emphasize listening and speaking skills and have an average of forty-five

TABLE V
Subtest Mean Percentile Scores by School for Spanish Programs

	School*	Number of Students	Percentile	S.D.
Listening				
FLES	SF-1	15	22	15.15
	SF-2	7	22	20.88
P.I.	SP-1	45	51	27.41
	SP-2	16	40	26.68
	SP-3	14	36	19.02
	SP-4	11	26	14.34
	SP-5	12	11	12.77
IMM	SI-1	39	78	19.42
	SI-2	52	91	8.23
	SI-3	52	94	4.02
Speaking				
FLES	SF-1	2	80	25.45
	SF-2	1	35	–
P.I.	SP-1	5	99	.49
	SP-2	0	–	–
	SP-3	3	99	.00
	SP-4	0	–	–
	SP-5	0	–	–
IMM	SI-1	3	99	.00
	SI-2	6	99	.36
	SI-3	9	99	.00
Reading				
FLES	SF-1	15	16	7.73
	SF-2	7	13	4.92
P.I.	SP-1	45	34	26.62
	SP-2	16	31	18.98
	SP-3	14	14	11.51
	SP-4	11	20	17.00
	SP-5	12	15	10.89
IMM	SI-1	39	61	20.51
	SI-2	52	74	19.92
	SI-3	52	87	9.98
Writing				
FLES	SF-1	15	21	14.52
	SF-2	7	7	5.79
P.I.	SP-1	45	34	25.44
	SP-2	16	17	13.04
	SP-3	14	8	2.17
	SP-4	11	15	14.71
	SP-5	12	5	4.00
IMM	SI-1	39	52	22.96
	SI-2	55**	69	22.12
	SI-3	52	81	14.03

*School Code: To ensure confidentiality of participating schools, the following code is used throughout the report: The first letter refers to language (S = Spanish). The second letter refers to program type (F = FLES; P = Partial Immersion; I = Immersion). The subsequent number refers to a school within a particular program.

**Note: 55 students took the writing subtest at school SI-2, as compared to 52 who took the reading and listening subtests.

minutes per day of instruction in French language arts.

Spanish students. An examination of Table V reveals the variation which exists within the ten Spanish language schools. Of the three programs, the FLES schools are the most homogeneous—particularly on the listening and reading subtests. There was a consistent pattern of differences between the two FLES schools, with students in school SF-1 outperforming students in school SF-2. A possible explanation is that students in SF-1 received one more instructional hour in Spanish per week than those students in SF-2.

The results on the *MLA Test* for the partial immersion program can also be seen in Table V which displays the mean percentile scores by school for the four subtests. The data indicate relatively little variation within the schools on the reading test. According to the results of the Scheffe test, these differences are not significant. If one were to remove school SP-5 from the partial immersion sample, there would be a high degree of homogeneity among the schools.

The results from the Spanish immersion schools indicate a consistent pattern of performance on the *MLA Test*, with the exception of the speaking subtest. Table V indicates that students in SI-3 significantly outperformed the others on the three subtests of listening, reading, and writing. The differences are most pronounced on the writing subtest, with scores ranging from the fifth percentile to the eighty-first percentile.

Results from the Student Self-Assessment Survey. What is the correlation between self-assessment of language skills and student performance on the *MLA Test?* The students' ratings of their abilities in the four skills were correlated with their performance on the respective portions of the MLA subtests to determine the fit between the two scores. We hypothesized that those students who had had more exposure to the foreign language would be better able to assess their language skills.

French students. The results confirmed the stated hypothesis—the degree of exposure to

the language did improve the self-assessment abilities of French students. A strong positive correlation existed between student performance and self-assessment ratings for the French immersion students on three of the four subtests—listening, reading, and writing. In contrast, a significant positive correlation was found only on the listening score for FLES students. Thus, the immersion students were more adept at evaluating their language skills than the FLES students who had had much less exposure to French.

Spanish students. The results of the correlation analysis revealed that Spanish immersion and partial immersion students were also more accurate in their evaluation of their performance on the *MLA Test* than FLES students. There were significant correlations for the listening and writing tests. In contrast, the scores from the Spanish FLES students showed no significant correlations on any of the four subtests.

These findings point out that the reliability of self-assessment reports for language are indeed related to the degree of exposure and proficiency in the foreign language. Second, it is evident that some of the students, particularly those in FLES programs, had inflated perceptions of their language skills.

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS OF STUDY

This study sought to compare three approaches to foreign language education of elementary school children in several communities across the country. This research is timely given the growing interest in the development of foreign language resources as they relate to American interests both at home and abroad. The results provide extremely clear indications of the student gains that can reasonably be expected from the immersion, partial immersion, and FLES approaches to foreign language instruction.

There is little doubt as to the relative efficacy of the three methods when high levels of language proficiency are the objective. Immersion, setting the most ambitious language fluency goals, reaches the highest level of proficiency. Partial immersion ranks second in proficiency attained by students, and FLES, the goals of which are the least ambitious, ranks third. Furthermore, the favorable comparison with high school students underscores the potential of immersion programs at the elementary school level.

A second purpose was to provide heretofore unavailable information that might well be of considerable importance to a number of groups in our society. First among these are parents who seek sound bases for making decisions regarding foreign language educational opportunities for their children. Of the three types of programs studied, little doubt exists that the immersion model provides the best opportunity for children to acquire foreign language competence at a level sufficient to allow them to use the language for real-life social and academic purposes. If these are the results hoped for by parents, then they need to seek out or help create immersion programs in which to enroll their children.

Another group that might be interested in the results of this study would be those in the modern language profession responsible for curriculum content, preparation of instructional materials, and teacher educators. Clearly, traditional foreign language courses in our high schools and universities will not meet the needs of students who emerge from extended participation in immersion programs. The design and development of curricula and teaching methodology appropriate for children who have already acquired high levels of communicative competence in the foreign language will be an interesting and challenging undertaking.

We assume that policy makers in local, state, and national offices of education might also be interested in the results reported here. Clearly, very positive results in foreign language education can be attained by children in the elementary schools, thus making it quite reasonable to invest the necessary resources to do so. The results shown in this study might well encourage educational authorities to respond with confidence to calls for increased opportunities for foreign language instruction throughout school systems.

Finally, researchers who are concerned with the development of theories of second language acquisition may, by studying the variables that correspond to the three approaches and to the results obtained in each case, be able to confirm or reject some of the assumptions currently held. Conditions characteristically found in the

immersion model of foreign language education and the theories held by many second language acquisition research scholars match closely.[11]

This study raises many questions for future research efforts. Of considerable interest are sources of program variation, the relationship between foreign language study and first language development, and the relative efficacy of early versus late foreign language study. The most critical research direction, however, lies in the area of language assessment. Immediate attention needs to be given to designing instruments to assess the various aspects of language proficiency, i.e., communicative competence.

In looking toward the future, we cannot help but be excited by the potential contributions to foreign language studies that are apparent from the successes of immersion programs.[12] Over the past twenty years there has been a convincing accumulation of evidence from both Canada and the United States which indicates that immersion students suffer no retardation of first language skills and are on par academically with their peers. With minimal investments of material resources and no apparent reduction in overall scholastic achievement, schools can provide children with the opportunity to become highly proficient in a foreign language.

NOTES

[1]This paper is a revised version of the final report *Comparative Evaluation of Elementary School Foreign Language Programs.* This research was supported by the Hazen Foundation and the US Department of Education, International Research and Studies Program, Grant #G00-82-01527, 1984. The authors wish to thank G. R. Tucker, J. L. D. Clark, William Bradley, and Richard Thompson for their assistance and support in the implementation of this research project.

[2]"Strength through Wisdom: A Critique of US Capability," *Modern Language Journal,* 64 (1980), pp. 9-57.

[3]National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (Washington: GPO, 1983).

[4]Twentieth Century Fund, *Report of the Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Policy* (New York: TCF, 1983).

[5]See T. Andersson, *Foreign Language in the Elementary School: A Struggle Against Mediocrity* (Austin: Univ. of Texas Press, 1963); P. Smith, *A Comparison of the Cognitive and Audiolingual Approaches to Foreign Language Instruction: The Pennsylvania Foreign Language Project* (Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development, 1970); P. Smith & E. Berger, *An Assessment of Three Foreign Language Teaching Strategies Using Three Language Laboratory Systems* (Washington: USOE, 1968); H. H. Stern & A. Weinrib, "Foreign Language for Younger Children: Trends and Assessment," *Language Teaching and Linguistics: Abstracts,* 10 (1977), pp. 5-25.

[6]Although information was collected on other variables (e.g., materials, extracurricular language opportunities, teacher training, etc.), we did not include these factors in our statistical analysis. We did, however, consider these variables in the interpretation of the research findings.

[7]For the most comprehensive review of foreign language programs in the elementary schools, see N. C. Rhodes, G. R. Tucker & J. L. D. Clark, *Elementary School Foreign Language Instruction in the United States: Innovative Approaches for the 1980s. Final Report* (Washington: CAL, ERIC #209940, 1981).

[8]See *Studies on Immersion Education. A Collection for United States Educators* (Sacramento: California Dept. of Education, 1984).

[9]T. C. Gray & R. N. Campbell, "Results of Preliminary Evaluation of Modern Language Association Cooperative Test of Proficiency," *Final Report to Hazen Foundation* (New Haven, 1982).

[10]See R. N. Campbell, "The Immersion Approach to Foreign Language Teaching," *Studies on Immersion Education: A Collection for United States Educators* (note 8 above); J. Cummins, "Four Misconceptions About Language Proficiency and Bilingual Education," *NABE Journal,* 5 (1981), pp. 31-45; L. Wong Fillmore, "The Language Learner as an Individual: Implications of Research on Individual Differences for the ESL Teacher," *On TESOL '82: Pacific Perspectives on Language and Teaching* (Washington: TESOL, 1983), pp. 157-73.

[11]S. Krashen, "Immersion: Why It Works and What It Has Taught Us," *Language and Society* (Ottawa: Commissioner of Official Languages of Canada, 1984), pp. 61-64.

[12]See W. E. Lambert & G. R. Tucker, *Bilingual Education of Children: The St. Lambert Experiment* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1972) and M. Swain, "Linguistic Expectations: Core, Extended and Immersion Programs," *Canadian Modern Language Review,* 37 (1981), pp. 486-97.

This parent-led program teaches kids foreign languages for no cost

AN ELEMENTARY school foreign language program that costs your school system absolutely nothing sounds too good to be true, right?

Not in Oklahoma, where several school systems are giving interested elementary school youngsters a sound introduction to foreign language instruction at an early age. The classes are taught before and after school by parents—not certified teachers—and costs are borne by tuition payments of $76 per student. If you'd like to offer foreign language courses to your younger students but never could afford to, read on: You might be able to create a similar program in your own schools.

The Oklahoma program started in 1977, when Jan Barrick was a special programs coordinator for the Norman (Oklahoma) public schools. Parents asked Barrick to set up a foreign language program in two of the system's elementary schools. The classes she began were so successful the school system extended the language program to all its elementary schools the following year.

In 1979, when Barrick changed jobs and moved to Edmond, Okla., she decided to introduce similar classes in the Edmond elementary schools. During the first year, approximately 300 students enrolled. Soon, Barrick approached other school systems in the Oklahoma City area with a novel idea: She would hold French and Spanish classes in school buildings before and after hours, using trained but uncertified parents as teachers—and charging a minimal fee for their services. The school would not be responsible for the classes, and Barrick would receive any funds the program generated.

In 1983-84, five school systems signed up, and 567 students in the last three grades of their elementary school participated in classes; this year, six systems have allowed Barrick to use their facilities for classes. The money is funneled into a nonprofit organization called Educational Enrichment Programs, which pays salaries to Barrick and other teachers. What's left over is used to develop materials for the foreign language programs.

"This is a serious attempt to develop foreign language programs on an elementary school level," Barrick says. "It's our hope that the program will lead to an unbroken language sequence that will continue through high school."

The program's goals: to interest children in another language, people, and culture; to give students a simple vocabulary directly related to daily activities; to provide a foundation for comprehending speech in a second language; to help students hear and understand a second tongue; and to introduce students to reading and writing in a second language.

The course uses an instructional method developed by James Asher of San Jose (California) State University. "It's a comprehensive approach to teaching foreign language based on learning through actions," Barrick explains. "It reduces stress in students and is highly motivational."

Here's how it works: Students listen to and respond to commands, such as "Please stand up," or "Please sit down," spoken in a foreign language. Once students have responded correctly to one command, they are presented with another and must decide what it means before following it.

The theory, Barrick says, is that "understanding is developed through movement of the student's body." The goal is not just for students to respond to a memorized set of commands, but for them to apply what they have learned to new sentences they hear in the classroom. "The ability to decipher new commands is the first step in listening—which students must learn before they can speak, read, or write in a foreign language," she adds.

Other student activities include imitating physical actions and taking part in foreign language games, songs, and dialogues.

First-year students are introduced to approximately 400 words dealing with such things as color, weather, food, clothing, parts of the body, dates, and holidays. They also learn a set of verbs and the imperative forms of approximately 50 action words. Children in second and third-year classes learn foreign language reading and writing skills.

"The language being taught is the only one spoken in the classroom," Barrick insists. "If English is used, the tendency is to use it too frequently. Every word of English spoken takes time away from foreign language instruction."

Most teachers are parents of children in the classes. Many are women, and all have experience speaking two languages. "I've been running this kind of program for seven years, and I've found parents are the best instructors," says Barrick. "They love having their own children in their classes."

To prepare for teaching, Barrick's instructors attend a five-day workshop each August, where they learn to use curriculum guides prepared by Barrick and other language instructors. At the workshop, teachers prepare lesson plans, practice teaching techniques, and learn the drill-and-dialogue approach to teaching. They also learn the goals and objectives of the program and its rules and regulations and are taught ways to deal with parents, school administrators, and the news media.

Chester Weems, assistant superintendent of schools in Mustang, Okla., says the program seems to work well in his schools—in fact, his daughter attended one of Barrick's classes. "We haven't heard any complaints," he says. "And in education, that means things must be going pretty well."

Although spokesmen for the Oklahoma Education Association (O.E.A.) say teachers haven't complained about the before and after-school classes, Tony Beaverson, O.E.A. executive director, asks why participating school systems don't offer foreign language instruction as part of their regular curriculum. Weems points out that only a limited number of students are enrolled in the classes, which are extracurricular offerings. "We are thinking about offering foreign language instruction in our night school program so parents as well as grade school students can learn a foreign language," says Weems.

Barrick admits some high school foreign language teachers criticized the idea at first. "But now," she says, "they are very supportive of our program. After all, we're increasing the number of students who are interested in learning foreign languages. And that means more kids will be taking foreign languages when they reach high school." □

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Programs and Course Ideas

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STRATEGIES FOR PERSONALIZATION IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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CONTENT AREA OF LESSON PLAN	KIND OF INFORMATION SHARED		
	A. FACTS (SELF AND WORLD)	B. FEELINGS, IDEAS, JUDGMENTS	C. IMAGINATION
I. DIALOGUES	Student Warmup *Q/A Personalized[1] *Remembering Responses Interviews - -Conversation Cards -Stump the Teacher TF Scrambled Sentences Rose Technique Jigsaw Puzzle	*Q/A Personalized *Remembering Responses Interviews -Conversation Cards -Stump the Teacher *Likert Scale	*Role Play, *Simulation *Extended Dialogue Interviews *Create a Dialogue
II. GRAMMAR	*Personalized Completion *Remembering Responses *Interviews *-Conversation Cards *-Stump the Teacher Rose Technique Student Warmup *Weather, news Keep Them Guessing	*Personalized Completion *Remembering Responses *Interviews *-Conversation Cards *-Stump the Teacher	Group Story Interviews -Conversation Cards Keep Them Guessing *Chain Story *Captions
III. VOCABULARY AND IDIOMS	*Student Warmup Personalized Completion Remembering Responses Interviews -Conversation Cards -Stump the Teacher *TF Scrambled Sentences *Rose Technique *Keep Them Guessing *Jigsaw Puzzle	Personalized Completion Remembering Responses Interviews -Conversation Cards -Stump the Teacher *Ranking	*Visuals-Story Interviews -Conversation Cards *Group Story *Want Ads *Advertisements Chain Story *Cinquain Poetry Captions
IV. NARRATIVES	*Student Generated Review *-TF (TF Scrambled) *-Multiple Choice *-Incomplete Statements *-Either/or Questions *-Inferential Identification Jigsaw Puzzle	*Personalized Q/A *Likert Scale *Sentence Builder *Evaluation of Reading *Ranking	*Interview Characters *Change Story *Create Story *Role Play
V. CULTURE	*Jigsaw Puzzle *-Culture *-Proverbs	*Socratic Questions *-Personal experience *-Make evaluations Likert Scale	Role Play Simulation *Create a Dialogue

[1]All activity types in this booklet are illustrated with examples. Sample activities can be found wherever an item is starred in a section of this grid.

Appendices

The following appendices are intended as tools for the elementary and secondary foreign language teacher. Appendix A is a list of journals and newsletters published in the U.S. and Canada that address national and local issues of concern to foreign language teachers. Information on subscription rates and addresses is provided when available. Appendix B lists organizations whose memberships are primarily foreign language educators or whose goals are to promote the study of foreign languages or further the cause of global understanding. Most produce pedagogical aids aimed at specific languages or cultural areas, and many provide opportunities for study abroad. Appendix C lists ethnic organizations in the U.S. with a brief description of each group's activities. Many offer educational materials in the form of textbooks, brochures, films and multimedia programs, and most maintain speakers bureaus and libraries. Whatever their stated services, it is likely they will be able to answer questions and offer suggestions for culture sequences in foreign language courses.

Readers interested in a listing of software in foreign languages (1985) should consult the following: The Educational Software Selector, 1985 ed., EPIE Institute, (Water Mill, NY, 1985) pp. 185-210. This listing includes information about availability, uses, description, and configuration.

APPENDIX A

AMERICAN AND CANADIAN SERIALS ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

A.A.T.F. National Bulletin: Quarterly, to membership of American Association of Teachers of French, text in English and French, c/o Fred M. Jenkins, Exec. Dir., University of Illinois, 57 E. Armory Ave., Champaign, IL 61820, (217)333-2842, Jame B. Goepper, ed.

A.A.T.G. Newsletter: 4/year, to members of American Association of Teachers of German, Inc., 523 Bldg., Suite 201, Rt. 38, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034, Louis F. Helbig, ed.

A.A.T.S.E.E.L. Newsletter: 6/year, text in English and Russian, non-members $4.50, American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages, c/o Zita Dabars, ed., Friends School, 5114 N. Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21210.

Alberta Modern Language Journal: 3/year, text in English, French, German, Ukrainian, Can. $15, Alberta Teachers' Association, Modern Language Council, 11010 142nd St., Edmonton, Alta. T5N 2R1, Canada, (403)453-2411, Barbara Dickinson, ed.

Arabiyya: 2/year, text in Arabic and English, individuals $10, institutions $15, American Association of Teachers of Arabic, c/o C.G. Killean, Exec. Sec., Near Eastern Languages, Oriental Institute, 1155 E. 58th St., Chicago, IL 60637, Frederic Cadora, ed.

Association of Teachers of Japanese Journal: 3/year, to membership, Association of Teachers of Japanese, University of Chicago, Department of Far Eastern Languages and Civilizations, 5736 Woodlawn Ave., Chicago, IL 60637, (312)753-1234.

Bluegrass Bulletin: Semiannual, Kentucky Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, c/o Dr. David R. Hume, ed., Department of Modern Languages, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY 40208.

C.L.A. Journal: Quarterly, text in various languages; $30, College Language Association, c/o Cason L. Hill, ed., Morehouse College, Atlanta, GA 30314, (404)681-2800.

Canadian Modern Language Review: Quarterly, text in French, German, Italian and Spanish, Can. $20 (Students Can. $15, institutions Can. $25), Ontario Modern Language Teachers' Association, 4 Oakmount Road, Welland, Ont. L3C 4X8, Canada, (416)734-3640, Anthony S. Mollica, ed.

Chinese Language Teachers Association. Journal: 3/year, text in Chinese and English, $30, Chinese Language Teachers Association, Institute of Far Eastern Studies, Seton Hall University, South Orange, NJ, 07079, (201)761-9456, Feng-sheng Hsueh, ed.

Courier: 10/year, Alberta Teachers' Association. Modern Language Council, 11010 142nd St., Edmonton, Alta. T5N 2R1, Canada, Peter Heffernan, ed.

E.L.N.A. Newsletter: Bimonthly (plus occasional supplements), text in English and Esperanto, institutions $7.50, Esperanto League for North America, Box 1129, El Cerrito, CA 94530, (415)653-0998, C. Schulze, ed.

Foreign Language Annals: 6/year, individuals $35, libraries $40, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 579 Broadway, Hastings-on-Hudson, NY 10706, (914)478-2011, C. Edward Scebold, ed.

German Quarterly: 4/year, text in English and German, American Association of Teachers of German, Inc., 523 Bldg., Suite 201, Rt. 38, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034, Wm. A. Little, ed.

Hispania: Quarterly, devoted to the interests of the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese, text in English, Portuguese and Spanish, $25 (American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, Inc.), Edwards Brothers, Inc., University of Southern California, Dept. of Spanish and Portuguese, CA 90089-0358, (617)832-3779, Theodore A. Sackett, ed.

Language Learning: Quarterly, journal of applied linguistics, quarterly, individuals $20, institutions $35, 1076 Frieze Bldg., Linguistics Dept., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, circ. 3,000.

M.L.A. Newsletter (New York): 4/year, non-members $3, Modern Language Association of America, 62 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10011, (212)741-5588, English Showalter, ed.

M.L.N. (Modern Language Notes): 5/year, text in English, French, German, Italian, Spanish, individuals $20, institutions $55, Johns Hopkins University Press, 701 W. 40th St., Ste. 275, Baltimore, MD 21218, (301)338-6960, Paul R. Olson, ed.

Massachusetts Foreign Language Bulletin: Semiannual, membership (non-members $1), Massachusetts Foreign Languages Association, c/o Sonia Reize, 5 Todd Rd., Lexington, MA 02173.

Mississippi Language Crusader: 3/year, $7.50, Mississippi Foreign Language Association, University of Mississippi, Modern Languages, Dept., University, MS 38677, (601)232-7298, Dr. Hans-Juergen Gaycken, ed.,

Modern Greek Studies Association Bulletin: Semiannual, $40, Modern Greek Studies Association, Box 1826, New Haven, CT 06508, John O. Iatrides, ed.

Modern Language Journal: Quarterly, text in various languages, individuals $13, institutions $30 (National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Association), University of Wisconsin Press, Journal Division, 114 N. Murray St., Madison, WI 53715, (608)262-4925, David P. Benseler, ed.

New Hampshire Polyglot: Quarterly, text in English, French, German, Latin, Russian, Spanish, free, Department of Education, 64 N. Main St., Concord, NH 03301, (603)271-3494.

Ohio Slavic and East European Newsletter: Semimonthly, free to qualified personnel, Ohio State University, Center for Slavic and East European Studies, Columbus, OH 43210, (614)422-6733.

Rocky Mountain Review of Language and Literature: Quarterly, individuals $12, institutions $16, Rocky Mountain Modern Language Association, Department of English, Boise State University, Boise, ID 83725, (602)965-6281, Carol Martin, ed.

Slavic and East European Journal: Quarterly, members $20, American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages, c/o Joe Malik, Jr., Sec.-Treas., Department of Russian and Slavic Studies, Modern Languages 340, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721, (602)621-7341, Ernest Scatton, ed.

Studies in Second Language Acquisition: Semiannual, individuals $12, institutions $15, Indiana University, Linguistics Club, Ballantine Hall 602, Bloomington, In 47405, (812)332-0211.

Unterrichtspraxis: Semiannual, text in English and German, $6, American Association of Teachers of German, Inc., 523 Bldg., Ste. 201, Rt. 38, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034, Gerhard Weiss, ed.

APPENDIX B

EDUCATORS' ORGANIZATIONS

Afro-Asian Center (AAC): P.O. Box 337, Saugerties, NY 12477, (914)246-7828, Robert Carroll, Dir. Social studies teachers in U.S. Promotes international friendship and cultural understanding between students in Africa/Asia and the U.S. through correspondence.

AFS International/Intercultural Programs (AFS): 313 E. 43rd St., New York, NY 10017, (212)949-4242, William M. Dyal, Jr., Pres. Promotes international understanding through exchange of secondary school students, ages 16-18 years old.

American Association for Chinese Studies (AACS): 300 Bricker Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus, OH 43210, (614)422-6681, Prof. Wen-lang Li, Exec. Sec. Promotes and researches Chinese language and culture education.

American Association of Professors of Yiddish (AAPY): KH802, Queens College, Flushing, NY 11367, (212)520-7067, Joseph C. Landis, Pres. Professors of Yiddish and other interested individuals. Maintains speakers bureau.

American Association of Students of German (AASG): 523 Bldg., Suite 201, Rte. 38, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034, (609)662-7279, Robert Govier, Ph.D., Exec. Dir. Promotes interest in study of German language and culture among college and high school students. Sponsors competitions, awards.

American Association of Teachers of Esperanto (AATE): c/o Dorothy Holland, 4710 Dexter Dr., #9, Santa Barbara, CA 93110, (805)967-5241, Dorothy Holland, Editor. Persons who are teaching or have taught Esperanto. Promotes instruction of Esperanto.

American Association of Teachers of French (AATF): 57 E. Armory, University of Illinois, Champaign, IL 61820, (217)333-2842, Fred M. Jenkins, Dir. Teachers of French in public and private elementary and secondary schools, colleges, and universities. Maintains Pedagogical Aids Bureau, furnishes exhibits, pen pal agency, conducts contests, offers summer scholarships for teachers.

American Association of Teachers of German (AATG): 523 Bldg., Suite 201, Rte. 38, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034, (609)663-5264, Robert A. Govier, Exec. Dir. Provides programs and services to teachers of German at all levels, inservice teacher training workshops, presents awards and scholarships.

American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI): c/o Edoardo A. Lebano, Center for Italian Studies, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405, (812)335-2508, Edoardo A. Lebano, Pres. College and secondary school teachers of Italian language and culture. Maintains speakers bureau, placement service. Oversees essay contest, secondary school contest.

American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL): Modern Languages Bldg., Rm. 340, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721, (602)621-7341, Joe Malik, Jr., Sec.-Treas. Encourages study of Slavic and East European languages, literature and culture on all levels. Formed National Slavic Honor Society (Dobro Slovo) and High School Slavic Honor Society.

American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP): P.O. Box 6349, Mississippi State University, State College, MS 39762, (601)325-2041, James R. Chatham, Exec. Dir. Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese languages and literature. Maintains placement bureau, pen pal registry, honor society (Sociedad Honoraria Hispanica), and National Spanish Examinations for secondary school students.

American Classical League (ACL): Miami University, Oxford, OH 45056, (513)529-4116, Richard A. LaFleur, Pres. Promotes the teaching of Latin and other classical languages in high schools and colleges. Maintains placement service, resource center, distributes teaching materials.

Global Learning (GL): 40 S. Fullerton Ave., Montclair, NJ 07042, (201)783-7616, Jeffrey L. Brown, Exec. Dir., seeks to promote concept of global education in state and local school systems, and to train teachers in global education concepts and teaching strategies. Workshops, institutes, in-service courses, on-site school evaluations curriculum revision consultations. Maintains large library.

Global Perspectives in Education (GPE): 218 E. 18th St., New York, NY 10003, (212)475-0850, Andrew F. Smith, Pres. Prepares American students for "the challenge of responsible national citizenship in a global age." Produces instructional materials for K-12, in-service and preservice training programs. Works with educators and education agencies.

International Christian Youth Exchange (ICYE): U.S. Committee, 134 W. 26th St., New York, NY 10001, (212)206-7307, Edwin H. Gragert, Exec. Dir. Sponsored by ten protestant denominations and National Federation for Catholic Youth Ministry. Offers youth exchange program for ages 16-24, also arranges for voluntary service abroad.

Japanese American Curriculum Project (JACP): P.O. Box 367, 414 E. Third Ave., San Mateo, CA 94401, (415)343-9408, Florence M. Hongo, Gen. Mgr. Promotes and disseminates Asian-American study and curriculum materials.

Junior Classical League (JCL): Miami University, Oxford, OH 45056, (513)529-4116, Joan Myers, Adm. Sec. Encourages interest in high school Latin and classical studies.

National Association for Asian and Pacific American Education (NAAPAE): 2727 29th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20008, (202)234-7599, Jeanette Kwok, Pres. Promotes awareness and acceptance of Asian-American community. Encourages research on related educational topics.

National Association of Professors of Hebrew (NAPH): 1346 VanHise Hall, 1220 Linden Dr., University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706, (608)262-3204, Albert T. Bilgray, Pres. Professors, students and others interested in study of Bible, Hebrew language and literature. Sponsors student honor society.

National Association of Self-Instructional Language Programs (NASILP): Critical Languages Center, Box 38, Humanities Bldg., Temple University, Philadelphia, PA 19122, (215)787-1715, Dr. John B. Means, Exec. Dir. Fosters self-instructional programs in foreign languages (special attention given to those less commonly taught). Provides textual materials, multi-media materials, speakers bureau.

National Committee for International Education Through Satellites (NCIES): 3808 Walnut St., Philadelphia, PA 19104, (215)898-3178, Tom Naff, Dr. Goal to internationalize education by employing live, interactive satellite technology to teach language and cultural skills within and across national and cultural boundaries. Maintains resource center.

National Council of State Supervisors of Foreign Languages (NCSSFL): c/o L. Gerard Toussaint, Dept. of Public Instruction, Education Bldg., Raleigh, NC 27611, (919)733-3703, L. Gerard Toussaint, Pres. Increases effectiveness of state foreign language supervisors by acting as an information service, at all levels.

Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NEC): P.O. Box 623, Middlebury, VT 05753, (802)388-4017, James W. Dodge, Sec.-Treas. Sponsored by nonprofit educational institutions. Furthers the teaching of foreign languages, offers workshops, bestows awards.

Open Door Student Exchange (ODSE): P.O. Box 1150, 124 E. Merrick Rd., Valley Stream, NY 11582, (516)825-8485, Howard Bertenthal, Exec. Dir. International high school student exchange between U.S. and Central America, South America, Europe, and the Middle East (homestay).

Pi Delta Phi: c/o Dr. Joseph W. Yedlicka, 6923 N. Kilpatrick, Lincolnwood, IL 60646, (312)676-3078, Dr. Joseph W. Yedlicka, Exec. Sec. Honor society for men and women in French language and literature. Presents scholarships.

Pompeiiana, Inc. (PI): 6026 Indianola Ave., Indianapolis, IN 46220, (317)255-0589, Bernard F. Barcio, Dir. Promotes Latin and classicial Greek studies at the secondary school level.

Sociedad Honoraria Hispanica (SHH): Christopher Columbus High School, 3000 S.W. 87th Ave., Miami, FL 33165, (305)223-5650, Joseph S. Adams, Exec. Dir. Secondary school students doing superior work in Spanish. Awards college scholarships, sponsors trips, conducts publicity contests.

Société des Professeurs Français et Francophones an Amérique (SPFA): 22 E. 60th St., New York, NY 10022, (201)359-3977, Micheline Herz, Pres. French nationals and Americans teaching French at any level. Sponsors competitions, offers scholarships, produces cassette series.

Society for French American Cultural Services and Educational Aid (FACSEA): 972 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10021, (212)570-4400, Anne Marie Morotte, Exec. Dir. Prepares and lends French language and civilization materials to schools, universities, libraries, museums and educational organizations (for a fee).

Society for the Advancement of Scandinavian Study (SASS): c/o Marianne E. Kalinke, Dept. of Germanic Languages, University of Illinois, Urbana, IL 61801, (217)333-7654, Marianne E. Kalinke, Sec.-Treas. Promotes teaching and research in Scandinavian languages, literature, culture, and society.

Teachers' Committee on Central America (TCCA): 657 Neilson St., Berkeley, CA 94707, (415)525-9616, Rob Kessler, Exec. Officer. Developing curriculum on Central America for use in American public schools. Materials distributed nationwide.

U.S.-China Education Foundation (USCEF): Old Kennedy Mill Road., Rt. 5, Box 187, Thomasville, NC 27360, (919)475-2395, Dr. Joseph B. Kennedy, Pres. Promotes the learning of the Chinese languages by Americans and the learning of English by the Chinese.

Women's Caucus for the Modern Languages (WCML): c/o Dr. Karen Merritt, 1654 VanHise Hall, 1220 Linden Dr., Madison, WI 53706, (608)262-5851, Dr. Karen Merritt, Pres. Women working or studying in the modern languages. Seeks to improve status of women in the profession. Disseminates information, conducts workshops.

Youth for Understanding (YFU): 3501 Newark St., N.W., Washington, DC 20016, (202)966-6808, John Richardson, Pres. International student exchange, for teenage under auspices of U.S. Information Agency. Offers orientation, school placement, insurance, language assistance, and counseling.

BILINGUAL MULTICULTURAL
TRAINING PROJECT
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APPENDIX C

ETHNIC ORGANIZATIONS

American Arabic Association (AMERA): 556 Trapelo Rd., Belmont, MA 02178, (617)396-8040, Frank Maria, Founder. Promotes better understanding between Americans and Arabs through involvement in humanitarian and charitable causes. Sponsors educational and cultural programs, lectures, bestows award.

American Austrian Society (AAS): c/o Margarethe M. Franzen, 1544 Hiddenbrook Dr., Herndon, VA 22070, (703)437-3448, Margarethe M. Franzen, Pres. Promotes cultural and social relations between U.S. and Austria. Film showings, musical evenings, lectures, competitions.

American Council on Germany (ACG): 680 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10019, (212)541-7878, David Klein, Exec. Dir. Improves understanding between U.S. and West Germany. Distributes publications on German problems.

American Latvian Association in the United States (ALA): P.O. Box 4578, Rockville, MD 20850, (301)340-1914, Anita Terauds, Sec. Gen. Works to acquaint general American public with Latvia by making available tapes, records, books and movies about Latvia. Maintains museum. Publishes curriculum for teaching Latvian language, etc.

American Scottish Foundation (ASF): P.O. Box 537, Lenox Hill Station, New York, NY 10021, (212)249-5556, Lady Malcolm Douglas-Hamilton, Pres. Works to build new bonds of friendship and cooperation between Scottish and American people.

American-Turkish Society (ATS): 850 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022, (212)319-2452, Aydin S. Caginalp, Pres. Promotes better understanding of culture of Turkey. Information center with small library. Conducts lectures and symposia, monthly cultural programs.

Australian-New Zealand Society of New York (A-NZSNY): 41 E. 42nd St., Rm. 219, New York, NY 10017, (212)986-1457, Eunice G. Grimaldi, Pres. Persons interested in creating a closer relationship between America, Australia, and New Zealand. Sponsors student and teacher exchanges.

Belgian-American Association (ABA): 13 rue Brederode, B-1000 Brussels, Belgium, Colette-Anne Stasse, Gen. Sec. Works to improve understanding of Belgian people in America. Presents cultural conferences, round table talks, trips, exchange programs. Active in Belgium on behalf of Americans.

Byelorussian-American Association in the U.S.A. (BAWA): 166-34 Gothic Dr., Jamaica, NY 11432, (212)397-5341, Anton Shukieloyts, Chm. Pomotes better understanding of Byelorussian history and culture. Organizes commemorations and celebrations, opposes communism.

Celtic League, American Branch (CLAB): P.O. Box 322, Rego Park, NY 11374. MaryKay Mulkeen, Sec. Disseminates information about Celts and their identity, based on culture, politics, economics and language.

Croatian Academy of America (CAA): P.O. Box 1767, Grand Central Station, New York, NY 10017, Maria Krocker Tuskan, M.D., Exec. Sec. Sponsors lectures on Croatian literature, culture and history.

Czech Heritage Foundation (CHF): P.O. Box 761, Cedar Rapids, IA 52406, (319)393-6107, Frank W. Novotny, Pres. Fosters interest in Czech culture, heritage, language, and the collection of artifacts of Czech origin. Develops audiovisual educational kits, guidebooks, and museum displays for loan to schools. Supplies costumes to ethnic festivals. Library and speakers bureau.

Ecuadorean American Association (EAA): 111 Broadway, Rm. 1408, New York, NY 10006, (212)233-7776, Linda Calvet, Exec. Sec. Promotes greater understanding and knowledge of Ecuador. Disseminates information on current events, maintains information bureau.

Estonian Educational Society (EES): 243 E. 34th St., New York, NY 10016, (212)684-0336, Juri Raago, Exec. Sec. Maintains school of Estonian language and history, library.

Finlandia Foundation (FF): c/o Gertrude Kujala, 6148 Glen Tower, Los Angeles, CA 90068, Gertrude Kujala, Pres. Furthers cultural exchange between U.S. and Finland. Bestows awards, sponsors musical scholarship at Sibelius Academy in Helsinki.

Finnish-American League for Democracy (FALD): P.O. Box 600, 147 Elm St., Fitchburg, MA 01420, (617)343-3822, Jonathan Ratila, Exec. Sec. Promotes study of Finish-American history and culture. Maintains library and biographical archives.

Italian-American Cultural Society (IACS): 28111 Imperial, Warren, MI 48093, (313)751-2855, Jack G. Grifo, Pres. Sponsors courses and seminars on Italian language, literature, art, and theatre. Maintains library and archives, bestows awards, offers placement service.

Lithuanian-American Community of the U.S.A. (LACUSA): c/o Dr. Antanas Butkus, 2370 Canterbury Rd., University Heights, OH 44118, (216)932-9944, Dr. Antanas Butkus, Pres. Cultural service provides community with textbooks, periodicals, etc. Bestows awards, maintains speakers bureau.

National Association of Arab Americans (NAAA): 2033 M St., N.W., Suite 900, Washington, DC 20036, (202)467-4800, David J. Sadd, Exec. Dir. Encourages friendship between U.S. and Arab citizens. Conducts seminars and conferences, speakers bureau.

National Association of Cuban Women and Men of the United States (NACWM-USA): P.O. Box 11012, Washington, DC 20008, (202)686-6506, Ana Maria Perera, Pres. Promotes Hispanic culture, emphasizing Cuban history, art, and literature.

Netherlands-America Community Association (NACA): c/o Netherlands Consulate, One Rockefeller Plaza, New York, NY 10020, (212)246-1429, Wanda Fleck, Exec. Officer. Advances educational, literary, artistic, scientific, historical, and cultural relations between U.S. and the Netherlands.

Norwegian Club (NC): c/o Dorothy Sanden, 520 77th St., Brooklyn, NY 11209, (718)238-1100, Kjell G. Hansen, Pres. Promotes cultural ties between America and Norway, encourages use of Norwegian language. Annual scholarship for study in Norway.

Romanian National Council (RNC): P.O. Box 111, Radio City Station, New York, NY 10101, (212)937-3891, Nicolae Carja, Pres. Promotes better public understanding of Romania culture and contributions made by Romanian people to art, science, music, etc.

Sino-American Amity Fund (SAAF): 86 Riverside Dr., New York, NY 10024, (212)787-6969, Rev. Paul Chan, Sec. Gen. Promotes better understanding between Americans and Chinese (Nationalist), through cultural, social, educational and religious programs.

Slovak League of America (SLA): 870 Rifle Camp Rd., West Paterson, NJ 07424, (201)256-1687, John A. Holy, Sec. Promotes a better understanding of Slovak nation, history, culture, traditions. Sponsors scholarship program.

Sons of Norway (S/N): 1455 W. Lake St., Minneapolis, MN 55408, (612)827-3611, Ralph S. Durand, Exec. Officer. Produces motion pictures, filmstrips and multimedia programs on Norwegian folk culture and fine arts. Maintains library.

Taiwanese-American Society (TAS): P.O. Box 668, Hillsboro, OR 97123, Mingmin Peng, Dir. Promotes friendship and cooperation between Taiwanese and American people. Educates Americans on culture, history, politics of Taiwan.

U.S.-Albania Friendship Association (USAFA): National Executive Committee, P.O. Box 8238, Chicago, IL 60680, (312)493-7020, Victoria S. Hull, Sec. Promotes friendship and understanding between people of U.S. and Albania. Conducts educational programs, film showings, seminars, study classes, speakers bureau. Maintains library.

World Association of Estonians (WAE): 243 E 34th St., New York, NY 10016, (212)686-3356, Harald Raudsepp, Sec. Seeks to spread culture and encourage friendship between U.S. and Estonia.

FLESNEWS

NATIONAL NETWORK FOR EARLY LANGUAGE LEARNING

Volume 1 Number 1 Fall 1987

FLES NEWS Provides Vital Forum

Notes from the Chair

I am delighted to introduce the inaugural issue of *FLES NEWS*, a newsletter written by and for educators involved in the teaching of foreign languages to young children.

This newsletter has come about as a result of the growing awareness of the importance of introducing young children to foreign languages. The increasing number of elementary schools across the country offering foreign language classes led to the birth of a much-needed network for educators involved in early foreign language education.

Over the past six or seven years, FLES (Foreign Language in the Elementary School) teachers, program coordinators, and administrators have been getting together informally at regional and national conferences to share ideas and compare notes about materials, curricula, teacher training, and other common concerns of elementary school foreign language programs. At the annual meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) in November 1986, participants in a FLES Networking Session suggested that the time was right to organize a national network to help promote the teaching of foreign languages in elementary schools.

Twenty-five of the FLES educators from the ACTFL session, representing foreign language programs in 16 states, met for a full weekend of meetings at the Center for Applied Linguistics on January 31 - February 1, 1987, to discuss the organization of a network that would facilitate communication among early language practitioners. By that Sunday afternoon, the "National Network for Early Language Learning" (NNELL) was born.

The main objectives of the network are to facilitate communication and to provide information that will improve public awareness and support for early language learning. The main activities of the network will be to publish this newsletter, *FLES NEWS*, three times a year and to promote FLES, especially at local, regional, and national conferences.

The network is open to all who are interested in the field. Those on the mailing list will receive *FLES NEWS* (free of charge the first year) and are invited to promote early language learning by organizing and attending FLES sessions at local, regional, and national meetings.

The executive committee elected at the meeting includes: Carolyn Andrade (Ohio), Diane Ging (Ohio), Mari Haas, corresponding secretary (New York), Nancy Hess (New York), Melanie Klutts, recording secretary (Texas), Gladys Lipton, treasurer (Maryland), Kathleen Riordan (Massachusetts), and Nancy Rhodes, chair (Washington, D.C.). Marcia Rosenbusch (Iowa), also on the executive committee, was elected editor of *FLES NEWS*.

What is the nature of the network? The network is a forum for people interested in early language teaching. Whether we will stay affiliated with an organization or become independent is yet to be determined. At this stage, we want to wait and see how our needs and goals can best be met. We are now under the umbrella of the Center for Applied Linguistics and work closely with other organizations with similar goals, including American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Advocates for Language Learning, the Modern Language Association, the International Conference of Second/Foreign Language Acquisition by Children, Joint National Committee on Languages, and the American Associations of Teachers of French, German, and Spanish and Portuguese.

It is wonderful to now have a newsletter that will keep us abreast of what is going on in the field and provide us with a means for sharing information, ideas, and concerns. Of course, the success of this newsletter depends on you, the readers, and your contributions, reactions, and ideas. You are encouraged to submit articles, classroom activities, program descriptions, comments, etc., to the appropriate corresponding editor or to Marcia Rosenbusch, Editor, *FLES NEWS*, 300 Pearson Hall, Iowa State University, Ames, IA 50011.

Nancy C. Rhodes, Chair, NNELL

Congratulations to the National Network for Early Language Learning on the publication of this first issue of its *FLES NEWS*. The newsletter should prove to be a welcome and useful resource for foreign language teachers in elementary schools throughout the country.

Jacqueline Benevento
President, ACTFL

Immersion Methodology: How Do Immersion Teachers Make Instruction in a Foreign Language Comprehensible?

Research efforts in immersion education during the 1960s and 1970s in both Canada and the United States focused almost exclusively on student achievement. Parents wanted to know if their children were reading at grade level or if their children were on par with their monolingual peers in mathematics concept development, for example. Principals and school officials turned to the results of longitudinal and comparative studies as empirical evidence that the immersion experiment was working. The accumulation of findings is impressive: children can excel linguistically and scholastically in immersion programs.

Attention is now turning to other areas of interest in immersion education. The focus of this study was immersion instructional methodology. The purpose of this study was twofold: 1) to describe the strategies and techniques used by experienced immersion teachers; and 2) to draw from the insights of work in other second language education programs such as bilingual and ESL (English as a Second Language) to suggest ideas that could be incorporated into immersion instruction. This article will focus on the first objective of the study. Forty-nine teachers representing five well-established immersion programs in the United States completed an extensive survey. The methodology section of the survey was divided into four categories of techniques that may be useful in teaching subject matter to children in their second language: language characteristics, extralinguistic aids, instructional techniques, and language error correction. Teachers were asked to rate the frequency with which they utilized these techniques on a scale from "always," on one extreme, to "never" on the other.

Results are presented by category. Ten of the eleven language characteristics listed received a mean score in the range of "very frequently." In order of ranking of frequency, they are: explicit teacher modeling, exemplification (the use of "for example," "for instance," etc.) repetition, redundancy, topic fronting (for example, "The *mission system* is what we talked about yesterday in class."), explicit marking of reference (e.g., greater use of nouns), explicit enuciation, controlled vocabulary, "here and now" focus, and use of short, simple sentences. Use of a slow rate of speech was ranked the least frequent in usage. In the second category, extralinguistic aids, teachers reported using body language "always"; realia and pantomime were used "very frequently" by these teachers.

The instructional routines that received mean scores of "always" were: predictability in instructional routines, drawing on general background knowledge to aid comprehension, varying teaching methods and activities, and use of clarification requests. Teachers also rated the following techniques as "very frequently" used: review of previously covered material; contextualizing with extralinguistic information (e.g., using pictures, titles of stories); using factual display questions (i.e., teacher already knows the answer); contextualizing with linguistic information (e.g., previewing vocabulary or grammar before a lesson); commanding with objects; and use of advance organizers (for example, outlines, partially completed lists, etc.). Finally, teachers rated indirect error correction methods of teacher modeling of correct response and request for repetition as error correction techniques that were used "very frequently."

In sum, immersion teachers report using a great variety of the strategies and techniques listed on the survey. The three highest rated techniques across the four categories were: 1) use of body language; 2) use of realia; and 3) drawing on general background knowledge to aid comprehension.

The second part of the survey asked the respondents to list three strategies from the list that they considered *most* important for immersion teachers to use in helping students understand material presented in a second language. Seven techniques were most frequently mentioned: 1) use of body language; 2) use of realia, visuals, manipulatives; 3) review of previously covered material; 4) repetition; 5) building redundancy into lessons; 6) drawing on general background information to aid comprehension; and 7) explicit teacher modeling.

The third section of the survey asked the teachers what, in their opinion, immersion teachers have to do *differently* from teachers in monolingual programs to teach subject matter in a second language. There were 47 responses to this open-ended section. The responses can be classified into five categories:

1. Preparation. Immersion teachers require more preparation time for curriculum development and translation of materials. Several teachers also noted that immersion

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FLES NEWS* is a newsletter for educators interested in providing quality foreign language instruction for children. The newsletter provides information on classroom activities, resources, various teaching methods, recent research, upcoming conferences, and information on how to publicize elementary foreign language programs. *FLES NEWS* provides a means of sharing information, ideas, and concerns among teachers, administrators, researchers, and others who are interested in the teaching of foreign languages to young children.

FLES NEWS is published three times a year (fall, winter, and spring) by the NNELL: Marcia Rosenbusch, editor; Nancy Rhodes, network chair.

Contributing editors for the newsletter are by topic: *Classroom activities* Donna Grundstad, Iowa City Community School District, 509 S. Dubuque St., Iowa City, IA 52240; *Conferences* Melanie Klutts, Richardson ISD, 563 Blanning Dr., Dallas, TX 75218; *Funding information and new legislation* Kurt Muller, National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies, 45 John Street, Suite 1200, New York, NY 10038; *Publicizing FLES* Carolyn Andrade, Cincinnati Public Schools, 230 E. 9th Street, Cincinnati, OH 45202; *Research* E. Statzner, Longfellow Humanities Magnet School, 318 Moore St., St. Paul, MN 55104; *Resources* Myriam Chapman, Bank Street School for Children, 610 W. 112th St., New York, NY 10025 and Betsy Grob, 196 Bleeker St., c/o Little Red Schoolhouse, New York, NY 10012; *Teaching Methods* Carol Ann Pesola, College of Education, 125 Peik Hall, 159 Pillsbury Drive S.E., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN 55455.

The first two issues of the newsletter will be distributed free of charge thanks to generous contributions from Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., American Association of Teachers of French–FLES Commission, American Association of Teachers of German, American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, Gessler Publishing Co., McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, and various individual contributors. There will be a charge for the newsletter starting in spring 1988; subscription rates will be announced in the next issue.

To be put on the mailing list, please send your name and address to: Nancy Rhodes, *FLES NEWS*, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St. NW, Washington, DC 20037. Readers are encouraged to make copies of this newsletter and share them with colleagues. Articles may be reprinted citing *FLES NEWS*, National Network for Early Language Learning, as the source.

*Foreign Language in the Elementary School

National Survey Profiles FLES

The role of foreign language education in our schools, especially at the elementary level, has been under close public scrutiny during the last decade. Various education commissions, policy groups, state education agencies, and local school districts have recommended ways to enhance the teaching of foreign languages.

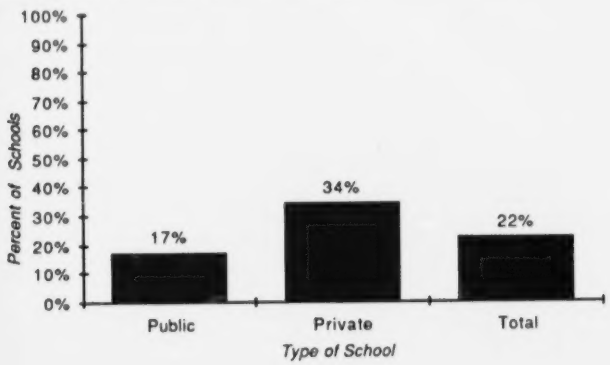
The Center for Language Education and Research (CLEAR), through funding from the U.S. Department of Education, addressed the issue of the status of foreign language instruction by conducting a national survey of elementary and secondary schools during the 1986-87 school year. A 4-page questionnaire on foreign language instruction was sent to a stratified random sample of approximately 5 % of all elementary and secondary schools in the United States.

The elementary school results, compiled from questionnaires completed by principals and foreign language teachers at 1,416 elementary schools, are presented here. The respondents represented public and private schools, ranging from nursery school through grade 8, in all 50 states and the District of Columbia.

The main purpose of the survey was to provide a national picture of foreign language education at the elementary level (often referred to as "FLES" or foreign language in the elementary school). Results presented here will focus on seven major categories of information addressed by the survey: the extent of foreign language teaching at the elementary level, the interest level of schools not currently teaching foreign languages, languages taught, program types, scheduling, articulation, and major problems.

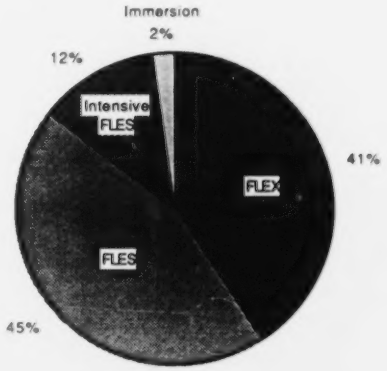
How extensive is foreign language teaching in elementary schools? Findings of the survey show that approximately one-fifth (22%) of all responding elementary schools offered foreign language classes. The percentage of private schools teaching foreign languages (34%) was exactly double that of public elementary schools (17%) (see Figure 1). Of those elementary schools that did not teach foreign languages, one-half said that they would be interested in having foreign language instruction at their school.

Figure 1: Percentage of Elementary Schools Teaching Foreign Languages (Public, Private, and Total)



What languages were most commonly taught? Spanish, offered by 68% of the elementary schools that taught language, was the language most commonly taught. It was followed by French (offered at 41% of the schools), Latin (12%), German (10%), Hebrew (6%), Chinese (3%), Russian (2%), and Spanish for Spanish speakers, Greek, and American Indian languages (each at 1%). Other languages taught by fewer than 1% of the elementary schools included Czech, Norwegian, Persian, Portuguese, American Sign Language, and Welsh.

Figure 2: Percentage of Elementary Schools Offering Various Program Types



Foreign Language Experience (FLEX)—The goals of this program are to get general exposure to language and culture, learn basic words and phrases, and develop an interest in foreign language for future language study. The aim is not fluency, but rather exposure to other language(s) and culture(s).

Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES)—The goals of this program are to acquire listening and speaking skills, gain an understanding and appreciation for other cultures, and acquire limited amounts of reading and writing skills. Lessons in early grades center around greetings, colors, numbers, food, days of the week, etc., and conversation focuses on topics children are familiar with e.g., family, pets, school. The teacher in this type of program may speak some English in the class.

Intensive FLES—The goals of this progarm are the same goals as in the above program but there is more exposure to the foreign language. This greater exposure includes language classes taught *only* in the foreign language or the foreign language being reinforced in other classes. There is coordination between foreign language teachers and other teachers so that language concepts are carried over into the regular curriculum.

Immersion—The goals of this program are to be able to communicate in the language almost as well as a native speaker of the same age and acquire an understanding of and appreciation for other cultures. At least 50% of the school day is taught *in* the foreign language, including such subjects as arithmetic, science, social studies, language arts.

What types of programs are offered? Respondents were asked to characterize their programs as one of four types: foreign language experience (FLEX) (a *basic* exposure to language and culture), foreign language in the elementary school (FLES) (a focus on listening, speaking, and cultural skills), intensive FLES (FLES with additional language reinforcement), or partial/total immersion (subject matter taught *in* the foreign language). (Definitions of these program types, as listed on the questionnaire, are included with Figure 2.)

Nearly half the elementary schools that taught foreign language (45%) had FLES programs, 41% had FLEX, 12% had intensive FLES, and 2% had immersion programs (see Figure 2). These results show that the vast majority of schools offered programs that aimed at various kinds of introductory exposure to the language (FLEX and FLES), while only 14% of them (intensive FLES and immersion) had as one of their goals real communicative competence.

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Teaching Methods

Methodology for Foreign Languages in the Elementary School is surely as rich in diversity as is the methodology for all other parts of the curriculum at this level. Although in some discussions there have been references to a "FLES Method," in fact there is no single approach that is most effective with all children. It will be the purpose of this part of the newsletter to highlight the variety of teaching methods used successfully at the elementary school level.

While the program model and the goals of the individual school will certainly influence the choice of methods to be employed in each classroom, there are some elements that most successful methods for FLES have in common. Because most programs are dealing with children at concrete stages of cognitive development, successful approaches to FLES classes will emphasize concrete experiences and heavy use of realia, visuals, and physical activity. Teaching strategies found in the Natural Approach and in Total Physical Response have an obvious application to the FLES classroom because they incorporate many concrete experiences, especially in early stages.

Children also respond best to approaches that make the most of the interests and experiences related to their immediate environment. In immersion programs children experience their entire school environment, including the content curriculum, in the target language, with a dramatic effect on their growth in target language skills. The same philosophy guides many other approaches that promote language use rather than learning about language: a language experience approach to reading and writing, experiencing rather than discussing the culture of the target language, and incorporation of crafts and food activities all reflect an experience-based methodology.

Methodology for children is also most effective when it incorporates the child's love of drama and play. Use of games, role-play, action songs, and songs that tell a story can contribute to exciting and motivating FLES instruction. No subject area can tap the child's love and talent for fantasy better than the foreign language classroom. The FLES teacher can find many ways of bringing together the dramatic and creative talents of the elementary school child with the children's literature and folk and fairy tales of the foreign culture. There are many successful methods, for example, for storytelling and retelling, puppetry, and drama.

Effective methodology will also take seriously the child's need and motivation to communicate and will provide situations in which communication is natural and meaningful. Games are often used to develop this component within the FLES classroom. Penpals, classroom exchanges, and video letters are examples of other methods used successfully to promote the goal of communication.

Several relatively new developments in elementary school language programs offer opportunities and challenges. Research in second language acquisition suggests the need for an emphasis on the development of the listening skill, especially in early stages of language acquisition. Because earlier FLES programs so heavily stressed imitation and speaking, there is now a clear need for teachers to develop more systematic approaches to listening and to the evaluation of listening skills. As elementary schools place increasing importance on holistic education and on basic skills across the curriculum, foreign language teachers need to find ways to integrate these areas in the FLES classroom. Another current emphasis in elementary schools, global education, is clearly an area for which FLES classrooms can have much to offer and for which methods and techniques must be developed and shared.

The methodology section of the this newsletter will be devoted to discussing methods for dealing with specific, as well as general, goals of FLES instruction. Some of the topics we will hope to address include: teaching culture, incorporating subject content, integrating FLES classes with the general curriculum, introducing reading, creating communicative language use situations, evaluation of student performance, and developing listening skills. The editor invites contributions from all readers, in the form of articles, book or article reviews, and suggestions for topics or references, in the hope that a wide spectrum of approaches and issues can be addressed.

Suggested References:

Asher, J. (1986). *Learning Another Language Through Actions: The Complete Teacher's Guidebook* (3rd ed.). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Publications.

Garcia, R. (1985). *Instructor's Notebook: How to Apply TPR for Best Results.* (J. Asher, Ed.) Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.

Krashen, S., & Terrell, T. (1983). *The Natural Approach. Language Acquisition in the Classroom.* San Francisco: Alemany Press.

Met, M. (1984). Listening Comprehension and the Young Second Language Learner. *Foreign Language Annals, 17*(5), 519-523.

Strasheim, L. (1981). Language is the Medium, Culture is the Message: Globalizing Foreign Languages. In M. Conner (Ed.), *A Global Approach to Foreign Language Education* (pp. 1-10) Skokie, IL: National Textbook.

Teaching Methods Editor: Carol Ann Pesola

Resources

The focus of this section is to inform readers about teaching materials available to FLES teachers. Because most teachers have access to commercially published texts and materials, we will concentrate on books, teaching aids, curriculum materials, and guides that are less readily available. We will include reviews of records, tapes, and videocassettes as well. However, to be truly useful, we will need help from you. Please send us copies of materials you think we should review or let us know where we can obtain them. If you have an original curriculum you have used effectively in your classroom, send it to us as well. We, the FLES teachers, can be our own best resources.

60 Chansons, 60 Musiques et 6 Nöels. (1978). Centurion Jeunesse. Paris: Editions du Centurion. Available through the French and Spanish Book Corporation. 610 Fifth Avenue, New York, NY 10020.

This delightful book is a collection of French children's songs and includes modern songs as well as traditional ones. You will find familiar and less familiar standards such as "Fais dodo, Colas, mon petit frère," "Mon Ane," "Ne pleure pas, Jeannette," some Brassens songs including "La cane de Jeanne," and charming contemporary songs such as "La Meulasse." Each song includes the music and is printed on a tear-out sheet. Songs that are also games are clearly explained. FLES teachers who are tired of teaching "Sur le point d'Avignon," will find a wealth of materials here and the certainty that they are transmitting authentic culture.

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Publicizing FLES

Two basic goals have been established for the Publicizing FLES section of the newsletter: 1) to provide readers with information about developing positive school and community support for early second language learning and 2) to provide readers with concrete information in support of early language learning from research studies, as well as from opinion-shaping quotations from educational and political leaders.

Districts currently operating successful elementary school programs are encouraged to share their experiences in this section. Among other things, readers will be interested in knowing what factors came together to get the program started, what individuals or groups of individuals provided the initial leadership, what activities involved the educational community as well as the community at large, and what part the foreign language program has played in shaping community opinion.

In this inaugural issue of FLES NEWS the Cincinnati experience may provide an idea or two for districts just beginning their programs and for well-established programs looking for other ideas.

Although the Cincinnati Public School District offers a wide variety of specialized "magnet" school programs, from creative and performing arts to physical education and computers, the foreign language magnet program is the largest, serving about one-quarter of the total magnet program enrollment. The fact that each year children learning two languages continue to score well above national averages in both reading and mathematics enhances the position of foreign languages among parents with school-age children.

In part, the established success of the K-5 programs in French, German, and Spanish led the district to consider expanding the number of languages available in the elementary school. Several language-specific task forces were established and charged with the preparation of program proposals. Each task force included members from the local educational, industrial, or business communities. In addition to a description of the program, each proposal contained a rationale for the program, the student needs to be addressed by the program, and a list of the sponsoring groups. Early in 1985 four proposals were selected, and the Academy of World Languages welcomed its first students that September, offering them Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian.

All parents of children new to a foreign language magnet receive an initial orientation prepared by principals and central office staff. In addition to the expectations of their child's individual school, parents learn:

- how learning another language enhances overall academic performance,
- how parents can assist their children, without being bilingual themselves,
- what techniques the foreign language teachers use to put the children at ease in the new language environment,
- what special features are included at the middle school level (including a travel/study experience to the native speaking environment),
- why it is important to make a K-12 commitment to language learning,
- what language fluency students may realistically achieve by grade 12.

In addition to this initial orientation for kindergarten and first grade parents, additional sessions are scheduled each year for upper elementary and middle school parents to reiterate the above and to answer specific questions about the transition from elementary to middle school or middle school to high school.

A newsletter, published by the central office four times a year, serves as an interschool link between students, parents, and teachers of each language. Students in fourth grade and older are encouraged to submit their work in the target language. Promoting a broader audience for student writing provides recognition for the author and added opportunities for success among readers at various grade levels. The Parent's Page of each issue contains articles related to current research, local student achievement, or special interest stories.

Another vehicle for bringing an international and intercultural awareness to the regular school curriculum has been the establishment of the International School Partnership Program. This program establishes a continuing interaction between schools in communities across national borders. The International School Partnership Program Committee includes business representatives, educators, and community members. Together they help plan and implement mutually beneficial exchanges of curriculum materials, art work, school newspapers, magazines, traditional products, and in some cases, students and teachers. The nature of each partnership is limited only by the imagination of the partners. This program is open to any school in the district. To date, 18 Cincinnati public schools are in some stage of contact with 27 foreign schools or agencies.

The Cincinnati Public School District continues to demonstrate its commitment to providing quality elementary school foreign language programs and to promoting an awareness of our participation in a world community. The combined efforts of business and community leaders, coupled with the positive attitudes of parents, the academic success of the students, and the dedication of teaching staff make a winning combination.

Publicizing FLES Editor: Carolyn Andrade

NAESP Resolution Supports FLES

On March 31, 1987, at its national convention in Orlando, Florida, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) passed a resolution in support of the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school. The resolution states:

NAESP believes that foreign language proficiency is important for students who will live in the twenth-first century. NAESP therefore urges principals to consider the inclusion of instruction in a foreign language as a regular component of the school's instructional program.

The following rationale was given by NAESP in support of this resolution:

NAESP recognizes that today's students live in a nation characterized by ethnic and linguistic diversity—a diversity that is likely to continue and, perhaps, even increase in coming years. The growing economic interdependence of the United States and its trading partners requires that tomorrow's citizens be competitive in the world marketplace. The ability to express oneself in and to understand languages other than English contributes to success in that competition.

Conference Information

International, national, and regional conferences and workshops are previewed in this section of the newsletter. Please send information to be included in the newsletter to the appropriate Contributing Editor. Please include: conference dates, name of the organization, theme, location, address for further information, and date of session proposal deadline.

September 25-26, 1987: METHODS III, CONFERENCE ON MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING. Cedar Falls, IA. Reinhold Bubser, Department of Modern Languages, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls, IA 50614-0504.

October 16-19, 1987: ADVOCATES FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (A.L.L.). Theme: "Learning Other Languages: A National Priority." Washington, DC. Jane Reeves, 611 McNeill Road, Silver Spring, MD 20910.

October 30-31, 1987: ANNUAL CONFERENCE FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS. Youngstown, OH. Renee Linkhorn, Department of Foreign Languages, Youngstown State University, Youngstown, OH 44555.

November 18-25, 1987: AMERICAN COUNCIL FOR TEACHERS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES. Theme: "New Challenges and Opportunities." Atlanta, GA. ACTFL, 579 Broadway, Hastings-on-Hudson, NY 10706.

November 18-25, 1987: SOUTHERN CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING. Atlanta, GA. James Gates, Spelman College, Atlanta, GA 30314.

December 27-30, 1987: MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION CONFERENCE. San Francisco, CA. MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003.

March 18-19, 1988: SECOND/FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION BY CHILDREN: THEORETICAL ASPECTS & PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS. Chicago, IL. Dr. Rosemarie Benya, East Central University, Ada, OK 74820-6899.

Conferences Editor: Melanie Klutts

Immersion Methodology from page 2

teachers must have an excellent understanding of the subject matter since they have to spend so much preparation time devoted to materials development.

2. Vocabulary Development. The second category, which was frequently mentioned, was vocabulary development. Because students lack both basic and specialized vocabulary, immersion teachers must concentrate on systematic vocabulary development.

3. Additional Instructional Techniques. The third category of open-ended comments dealt with additional techniques that immersion teachers considered essential in subject matter teaching. Two themes emerged. First, immersion teachers need to provide more direction and structure to second language learners. This point has multiple pedagogical implications—from setting standard ritualized classroom routines to providing concrete and specific instructions for assignments. Secondly, the immersion teachers reiterated the need for extensive use of realia and visual presentations to connect and reinforce language to concrete referents, particularly in the lower grades. They emphasized hands-on involvement to incorporate as many sensory modes as possible.

4. Culture. The teaching of culture was the fourth category mentioned in the open-ended comments. Immersion teachers need to know the culture of the second language community and strive to integrate it into the curriculum.

5. Personal Attributes. Finally, many additional skills were listed that related to a set of personal attributes required of immersion teachers. They must be patient and flexible because lesson preparation and delivery often take more time. They must be comfortable being good actors since there are great demands for body language and pantomime. They must know the foreign language well and feel comfortable using it both for academic instruction and interpersonal interaction (including classroom management and discipline). Finally, they must have the desire and interest to create a classroom environment in which students feel comfortable using the foreign language for all communicative purposes.

The results of this study provide a vivid description of the varied strategies and techniques that immersion teachers incorporate into their instructional repertoire to make subject matter comprehensible. Immersion teaching involves much more than simply taking the standard school curriculum and teaching it in a foreign language. Pre-service and in-service training are required to adequately prepare teachers for the challenge of immersion teaching.

A more detailed discussion of the study is available in a handbook developed for prospective immersion teachers. If you are interested in obtaining a copy, please write to: Ann Snow, Center for Language Education and Research, 1100 Glendon Ave., Suite 1740, Los Angeles, CA 90024.

Dr. Marguerite Ann Snow

Dr. Snow is a member of the professional research staff at the Center for Language Education and Research at UCLA where she conducts research on second and foreign language education.

Research Editor: E. Statzner

Fullbright Teacher Exchange

The United States Information Agency has announced details of the 1988-89 Fulbright Teacher Exchange Program that involves a one-on-one exchange for foreign language teachers at the elementary, secondary, and postsecondary levels with teachers overseas. The 1988-89 overseas exchange programs will involve Argentina, Australia, Belgium/Luxembourg, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Iceland, the Netherlands, Norway, Panama, South Africa, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom.

The program also provides opportunities for teachers to participate in summer seminars from three to eight weeks in length. During the summer of 1988, seminars will be held in Italy and the Netherlands.

The deadline for receipt of completed applications is October 15, 1987. For application and further information, contact:

Fulbright Teacher Exchange Program
E/ASX
United States Information Agency
301 Fourth St., S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20547
(202) 485-2555

Classroom Activity Suggested

Title: The Map

Objective: The students will demonstrate comprehension of directions and geographical locations and will ask and answer questions regarding where they are, where they are from, and where they go.

Materials: A large map of the target country—traced on the floor with masking tape or on a large sheet of plastic, such as a table cloth. Paper and markers for labels.

Procedure: Students make labels for cities and other places of interest in the target country. As a special project, they are encouraged to make castles out of milk cartons or shoe boxes; beach umbrellas for the beach areas; boats; mountains out of papier mâché; etc.

A student (or students) stands on the country and is instructed by the teacher or other students to move physically from one place to another.

The map can function as a visual for question/answer activities reviewing common phrases such as:

Where are you from?
Where do you live?
Where are you now?
Where do you work?
Where is _____ located?

Contributor: Marcela M. Gerber, Foreign Language Coordinator, The Hockaday School, 11600 Welch Road, P. O. Box 299000, Dallas, TX 75229-2999

Classroom Activities Editor: Donna Grundstad

National Survey from page 3

This should be kept in mind when evaluating foreign language instruction across the country. Even though one-fifth of elementary schools offered foreign languages, only 14% of that one-fifth (3% overall) offered a program in which the students were likely to attain some degree of communicative competence.

When are the classes taught? Despite the difficulty of fitting foreign language classes into the already crowded elementary school curriculum, the vast majority (89%) of elementary schools that offered foreign languages were indeed making room for foreign language study during the school day. The rest of the schools offered classes before or after regular school hours or on weekends.

What happens to these students when they leave the elementary school? An important component of any foreign language program is the long-range planning for continuation of instruction from elementary school through middle school and high school. However, 31% of elementary schools reported no plans for articulation at all. Students who had studied a foreign language in those elementary schools are placed in Level 1 foreign language classes along with students who have had no prior contact with the language. Forty-nine percent of the schools reported that students who had studied a foreign language in elementary school could enroll in more advanced classes (which may or may not have been designed to build on their prior experience).

What do principals and FLES teachers see as the major problems confronting foreign language instruction in their schools? The majority of public and private schools said that a shortage of funds was a serious obstacle. Other major problems mentioned were shortage of teachers, lack of quality materials, inadequate sequencing, lack of established curriculum, and inadequate in-service training. The problem of time in the school day, while not listed as a possible response option, was written in by numerous respondents. Many of these respondents called for more class time to teach foreign languages and for scheduling during regular school hours. Several commented that language instruction had to compete with other subjects and activities for students' attention and time.

The profile of FLES in the United States revealed by the survey shows that foreign language instruction in some form is currently being offered in just over one-fifth of the elementary schools. The majority of those classes are not aimed at overall fluency, but have as their goals a general exposure to language and the development of basic listening and speaking skills. Language classes are usually taught during the school day, but many schools have trouble scheduling the classes or allowing enough time in the already crowded curriculum. Further, schools have had trouble articulating their programs into already established middle and high school programs.

In addition, interest in starting up elementary language programs at schools not currently teaching language is widespread. Many schools, for a variety of reasons, are not able to develop a language program, although the actual number of programs has increased since 1981 when a comparable survey was conducted by the Center for Applied Linguistics.

Implications of the survey results for foreign language education at the elementary level are clear. Efforts to increase language learning by children can be strengthened in the following ways: (1) by improving articulation patterns for those schools that already offer foreign language classes in the early grades, (2) by encouraging the establishment of new programs, particulary those that aim at a high degree of proficiency, (3) by devising creative ways to fit language classes into the early grades, and (4) by addressing the major problems outlined by principals and teachers, including shortage of funding, lack of teachers, lack of quality materials, lack of established curriculum, and inadequate in-service training. Organizations such as NNELL can help coordinate the efforts to improve FLES teaching by providing a forum through this newsletter to present innovative ideas and offer solutions to common problems.

For additional information on the survey, including secondary school results, please write for a copy of *U.S. Foreign Language Instruction at the Elementary and Secondary School Levels: A Nationwide Profile*. Write to: CLEAR, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St. NW, Washington, DC 20037.

Nancy C. Rhodes and Rebecca Oxford, Center for Language Education and Research, Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, DC

An updated list of total and partial immersion programs in the U.S. is now available. For a free copy, please write to:

Tara McCallum, Center for Language Education and Research, 1118 22nd St. NW, Washington, DC 20037

Resources from page 4

Suarez Weiss, P. *Reir, Jugar, Hablar.* (1987). New York: Gessler. 900 Broadway, New York, NY 10003-1291.

This is a short activity program for elementary and junior high school students. It covers a limited number of topics: colors, days of the week, months, meals (breakfast, lunch, dinner), and a birthday celebration. The vocabulary is reinforced through jingles and poems written by the author. The booklet contains games, puzzles, and activities that can be used as a supplement to your own curriculum. A 75-minute videotape accompanies the booklet.

Resources Editors: Myriam Chapman and Betsy Grob

NNELL Meeting Planned

The National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL) will provide an opportunity for current and future FLES practitioners to share ideas, common problems, solutions, and strategies at the annual meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) in Atlanta, Georgia, November 18-25, 1987. The content of the session entitled "FLES Network Meeting: National Network for Early Language Learning" will be determined by the participants.

Marcia H. Rosenbusch, Editor
FLES NEWS
Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures
300 Pearson Hall
Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa 50011

NNELL Thanks Its Friends!

NNELL thanks its friends without whom the free distribution of this newsletter would not be possible:

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Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
Thank you!

FLESNEWS

NATIONAL NETWORK FOR EARLY LANGUAGE LEARNING

Volume 1 Number 3 Spring 1988

State Involvement in FLES Increases

Margaret Clark
Assistant Professor of French and Secondary Education
University of Arkansas
Fayetteville, Arkansas

The number of elementary school foreign language programs in this nation has increased during the last decade. The desire to add FLES programs to the curriculum appears to have been influenced in part by the publication of the report, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (1983), which suggested that foreign language study for proficiency outcomes begin in the elementary grades. As the number of FLES programs has grown, so has interest in discovering to what extent state legislatures and departments of education are supporting the fledgling FLES programs.

This article reports on data obtained from a survey on state involvement in FLES. For this project, questionnaires went to the 1987 state foreign language supervisors represented in the National Council of State Supervisors of Foreign Languages. Responses came from 49 states, the District of Columbia, and American Samoa. The focus of this report is on state mandates, funding, FLES teacher preparation programs, and certification requirements.

State Mandates

Five states reported having a state law or regulation mandating the inclusion of foreign languages in elementary schools in grades K-6. The strongest regulation is found in the law of **North Carolina**, which became effective in August 1987. This law mandates that by 1993 every child take a second language in grades K-5 and that school systems provide a program in at least one second language for all students in K-12.

In **Louisiana**, an articulated foreign language program in grades 4-6 (30 minutes daily) is required for academically able students and is optional for all others. "An academically able student is one who is functioning at grade level. . ." Implementation of this program started in grade 4 in 1985-1986 and was scheduled to extend upward at least one grade each year.

Continued on page 4

NNELL Thanks Its Friends

NNELL thanks its friends who made possible the distribution of the first issues of this newsletter free of charge:

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American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese
Gessler Publishing Company
Massachusetts Foreign Language Association
McGraw-Hill Publishing Company
Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
Ohio Foreign Language Association
Wellesley College

Thank you!

Wingspread Initiates FLES Dialogue

Notes from NNELL Chair Nancy C. Rhodes

The Johnson Foundation hosted a two-day consultation in early February at their Wingspread conference center in Racine, Wisconsin. The purposes of the meeting were to explore issues in elementary school foreign language instruction and to consider the possibility of a national project to set forth guidelines for policy and practice in the field.

The Wingspread meeting brought together 29 leaders in the foreign language field including teachers, administrators, researchers, and foreign language organization representatives as well as national education association officers and Wingspread executives.

The Johnson Foundation, which has closely followed educational reforms during the last decade, is concerned that most U.S. students do not study a second language and that of those who do, most do not develop facility in the language

Continued on page 5

CLEAR Searches for Materials

CLEAR wants your teaching materials! The Center for Language Education and Research (CLEAR) at the Center for Applied Linguistics is conducting a search of specific foreign language materials, curricula, and programs in the more commonly taught languages (French, German, and Spanish) and in some of the less commonly taught languages (Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian) at the K-12 level. Their goal is to assist the networking of various school districts across the country and to provide information for language educators in new and established programs.

Specific areas covered include (1) FLES, FLEX, and immersion materials, curricula, and programs; and (2) specialized materials for integrating foreign language and content, i.e., content-based language materials (science materials in French, math in German, etc.).

The materials received from educators, schools, and publishers are annotated and listed in the CLEAR data base. The materials themselves are kept in the CLEAR Materials Center for reference and, with the author's permission, are also submitted to the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics.

If you or your school district have materials or curricula that fit the scope areas, please send a copy to CLEAR for inclusion in the data base.

Periodically, computerized searches are made for various languages and content areas. These *Annotated Bibliographies of Foreign Language Materials* are available upon request. Currently, searches are available in Chinese, French, German, Spanish, and Native Spanish at the elementary level. The content areas included are Health/Science, Social Studies/ History, Math, Language Arts/Second Language, and Music/Art/PE. To request a search, please write to the address listed below and indicate the language, level, and content area(s) you wish to receive. Please send your request by June 30, 1988, and include your summer mailing address.

Send materials and requests for searches to **Karen Willetts, CLEAR, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St., NW, Washington, DC 20037.**

Conference Calendar

International, national, and regional conferences and workshops are previewed in this section of the newsletter. Please send information on conferences and workshops to the conferences editor.

1988 Conferences

May 6-7: **Pacific Northwest Council on Foreign Languages**. Eugene, OR. Dianne W. Hart, Foreign Languages and Literatures, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR 97331.

August 19-23: **American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese**. Denver, CO. AATSP, P. O. Box 6349, Mississippi State, MS 39762-6349.

FLES Training Workshops, Summer 1988

Summer opportunities for specialized training for FLES teachers are listed with the contact person from whom application information can be requested.

June 6-July 1: **Methods for Foreign Languages in the Elementary School**. Moorhead, MN. Carol Ann Pesola, Director. For application forms contact: Office of Admissions, Concordia College, Moorhead, MN 56560.

June 30-July 30: **Third Annual Summer Language Institute**. New York, NY. Mari Haas, Bank Street Graduate School of Education, Summer Language Institute, 610 West 112th Street, New York, NY 10025. (212) 865-5382. Session includes two weeks travel in France or Mexico. Session also available June 30-July 15 without travel.

July 11-14: **Foreign Language in the Elementary Schools**. Ashland, OR. Lauren Schaffer, Instructor. For application forms contact: Division of Continuing Education, Southern Oregon State College, Ashland, OR 97520. Preregistration is required by July 1, 1988.

July 12-29: **FLES Institute**. Catonsville, MD. Dr. Gladys Lipton, Coordinator of Foreign Language Workshops, University of Maryland/Baltimore County, Department of Modern Languages, Catonsville, MD 21228. (301) 455-2109.

Conferences Editor: Melanie Klutts

FLES NEWS* is a newsletter for educators interested in providing quality foreign language instruction for children. The newsletter provides information on classroom activities, resources, various teaching methods, recent research, upcoming conferences, and information on how to publicize elementary foreign language programs. *FLES NEWS* provides a means of sharing information, ideas, and concerns among teachers, administrators, researchers, and others who are interested in the teaching of foreign languages to young children.

FLES NEWS is published three times a year (fall, winter, and spring) by the National Network for Early Language Learning: Marcia Rosenbusch, editor; Nancy Rhodes, network chair.

Contributing editors for the newsletter by topic are: *Classroom activities* Donna Grundstad, Iowa City Community School District, 509 S. Dubuque St., Iowa City, IA 52240; *Conferences* Melanie Klutts, Richardson ISD, 563 Blanning Dr., Dallas, TX 75218; *Funding information and new legislation* Kurt Muller, National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies, 45 John Street, Suite 1200, New York, NY 10038; *Publicizing FLES* Carolyn Andrade, Cincinnati Public Schools, 230 E. 9th Street, Cincinnati, OH 45202; *Research* E. Statzner, Longfellow Humanities Magnet School, 318 Moore St., St. Paul, MN 55104; *Resources* Myriam Chapman, Bank Street School for Children, 610 W. 112th St., New York, NY 10025 and Betsy Grob, 196 Bleeker St., c/o Little Red Schoolhouse, New York, NY 10012; *Teaching Methods* Carol Ann Pesola, College of Education, 125 Peik Hall, 159 Pillsbury Drive S.E., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN 55455.

The first issues of the newsletter were distributed free of charge thanks to generous contributions from Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., American Association of Teachers of French-FLES Commission, American Association of Teachers of German, American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, Gessler Publishing Co., Massachusetts Foreign Language Association, McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Ohio Foreign Language Association, Wellesley College, and various individual contributors.

Subscription rates are $8/year, starting with the 1988-89 year. Please send your check to: Gladys Lipton, Treasurer, National Network for Early Language Learning, P. O. Box 4982, Silver Spring, MD 20904.

FLES NEWS wants to hear from its readers. Send letters to: Nancy Rhodes, *FLES NEWS*, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St. NW, Washington, DC 20037. Send contributions to be considered for publication to the appropriate contributing editors at the addresses listed above. Deadlines for information are: fall issue–May 1; winter issue–Nov. 1; spring issue–Feb. 1.

Readers are encouraged to make copies of this newsletter and share them with colleagues. Articles may be reprinted citing *FLES NEWS*, National Network for Early Language Learning, as the source.

*Foreign Language in the Elementary School

Speak Out for FLES!

Including FLES, FLEX, and Immersion

Gladys C. Lipton, University of Maryland, Baltimore County, Maryland

If you have a strong conviction that FLES is important in children's lives, then you should learn how to "go public" and tell the FLES story. Although many people believe in the teaching of foreign languages to children, few people know how to communicate information, facts, and support, and even fewer have the inclination to speak out in public.

The thrust of this article is to point out ways to communicate your convictions. To sit idly by while policymakers, school board members, and others make decisions that are not always based on the complete picture can be extremely frustrating. To speak out, contributing to more informed decision making, can be highly satisfying, even when the decision may not conform to your convictions. At least you made the effort! At least you gave some input that may not have been available elsewhere!

The "where" of speaking out is often dictated by the particular locality. It may be at a meeting of the local PTA, the district school board, the county council, a citizen's forum, or a taxpayers' meeting. No matter where the setting, you should be ready to communicate your ideas.

The "what" of speaking out is determined by a number of local issues. It may be based on a study committee's investigations of whether or not to initiate a FLES program. It may be providing specific facts and figures of programs throughout the state. It may be reporting the results of a parent survey. It may be responding to specific questions about the value of early study of a foreign language.

Presentation Guidelines

1. *Do your homework.* Listen, read, absorb the facts, learn as much as you can about the specific topics under discussion.
2. *Be fair.* Even if you are completely convinced that your point of view is paramount, you have greater credibility if you present all points of view, including opposing opinions. This is an opportunity to show that you have grasped the entire picture, not just a small area.
3. *Be honest.* When you do not know something, admit it. If you have failed to get some needed information, admit it. There is no point in trying to talk your way out of a situation of this type. Of course, if time permits, you should be the person who will bring back the needed information.
4. *Be enthusiastic.* Half the battle in convincing others is showing how enthusiastic you are about a particular topic. Show your enthusiasm in your voice (it should be loud enough to be heard), in your gestures and body language, in your visuals (if you need them to present facts and figures), and in your total charm and personality.
5. *Remind your audience about some of the problems and the cautions that must be part of the planning process.* This aspect need not be completely negative. It is, however, part of your efforts to be fair and honest so that the children have the most outstanding type of program of foreign language instruction. Merely jumping on a popular bandwagon will not ensure excellence!

To illustrate an exemplary way of speaking out about FLES, I have included part of a paper written by one of my teacher-participants in a recent FLES methods course at the university. The assignment was to write a paper that would be the basis of a presentation before a local school board.

> Good evening, ladies and gentlemen. My name is Norma Bourdin, and I teach French at the Gibson Island Country Day School. It is a pleasure for me to be speaking to you about a truly exciting subject to me–teaching foreign language in the elementary school, better known as FLES.
>
> In trying to decide how I would make you understand how important it is to begin a FLES program, I talked with parents and teachers, many of whom said to me that by adding a foreign language to a child's schedule, it would take time away from other subjects, both in school and in study time at home. Some people also said that the foreign language would only confuse the child in the study of English and reading.
>
> I thought about giving you research figures and data which say that the child will probably do better in all of his or her subjects, especially English, and perhaps, have a more mature attitude toward school. But then I decided that I would let my own students tell why they think it is important to learn a foreign language. My fourth and fifth grade students (who have studied French with me since kindergarten) said: "If you travel to a foreign country, you can speak the language, give and receive directions, take care of any accident or medical emergency." "You can go to a restaurant and know what you will be eating, and count your money when buying something." "You will be able to ask questions and make friends in another country." "It is important for your own life experience and knowledge to know something that people around the world know, like knowing a secret code that your parents don't know!" "You could translate for others who don't know the language, communicate with relatives in your family who live in a different country." "It is fun to learn something new: words, games, songs." "You can even have penpals." "I would be ready for a college/university course and people will not think I'm ignorant!" "I can do
>
> I would like to close with a statement which reflects my own philosophy of teaching, printed by the National Association of Independent Schools: "The study of foreign language is a liberating discipline that not only improves the student's listening and speaking proficiency, but also frees him/her from narrow national bonds, that makes him/her aware of the diversity of cultures, that sharpens rational powers, and, above all, that makes the student more aware of the fundamental importance of language."

We can all learn to be effective communicators, particularly when we have strong convictions. Go for it! Speak out for FLES!

Resources for Your Classroom

Curtain, H. A. and Pesola, C. A. (1988). ***Languages and Children – Making the Match. Foreign Language Instruction in the Elementary School.*** Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

This book is a wonderful advocate for the teaching of foreign languages at the elementary level. The tone of the book is thoughtful as well as practical, and reflects the creative approach to teaching and the broad experience of the authors. Several principles underly the book: foreign languages are a vital part of children's education; communication is the goal of language learning; children acquire language best through activities that are communicative, age-appropriate, concrete, content-based, and culture-based; and much can be learned from the success of immersion programs that can be applied to FLES programs.

The authors discuss several important topics in depth: the practical and theoretical considerations that go into choosing, planning, and developing a FLES program; activities and materials that develop communication in the classroom; fantasy-based experiences to promote an understanding of culture; ways of evaluating students and programs; and materials and resources for the classroom (both teacher-made and commercial). Since the book is intended as a methods text as well as a sourcebook for teachers and administrators, each chapter concludes with a chapter summary, questions for study and discussion, and a reading list. There are five appendices, which include model lesson plans, extensive lists of sources for classroom supplies, and professional information. Everyone connected with the teaching of languages to children will want to read this book because of its excellent presentation of the issues that concern us.

Dobb, F. (1987). ***Annotated Bibliography of Materials for Elementary Foreign Language Programs.*** Available from Fred Dobb, Consultant in Foreign Languages, California State Department of Education, 721 Capitol Mall, P. O. Box 944272, Sacramento, CA 94244-2720.

This bibliography includes basic materials for the most popular FLES languages and the less commonly taught ones, such as Hebrew, Japanese, and Arabic. Many of the materials for French and Spanish may be familiar, but it is good to have them all listed together. If you are looking for materials in other languages, particularly German (which has four pages of listings), this bibliography can be very useful.

Resources Editors: Myriam Chapman and Betsy Grob

State Involvement from page 1

Hawaii's Board of Education agenda includes a resolution requiring the teaching of a foreign language in grades 3-6. In **New York**, public school students graduating in 1992 and 1993 must have completed at least one unit of study in a second language at some time during grades K-9, and those graduating in 1994 and after must have had at least two units.

Arkansas's Standard for Accreditation "requires exercises in foreign languages in the elementary school curriculum" to be satisfied by instruction in foreign language(s), or instruction and activities in culture, or a combination of foreign language and culture instruction. Accompanying this standard is a strong recommendation that foreign language exercises be a part of the instruction at each grade level.

Kansas is one state that has an optional plan for elementary foreign language study. The Kansas State Board of Education has approved accreditation standards requiring that by 1990 all school districts provide opportunities to study a foreign language for at least two years at the high school level or the equivalent at the elementary level (Draper, 1987).

In other states, voices advocating the study of foreign languages in elementary schools are also heard. Two states have already set up a special task force: **Arizona**, to review the feasibility of requiring foreign languages; and **Georgia**, to prepare program models and to implement strategies. In **Mississippi**, where there is no mandate for foreign language study, the language included in the Curriculum Structure spells out in detail the requirements for the teaching of culture and the development of listening and speaking skills in a foreign language in grades K-3 and for the addition of reading and writing skills in grades 4-6.

Funding

Five states have special funds available to establish FLES programs: Florida, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, and North Carolina. In **North Carolina**, the legislation mandating FLES study was accompanied by the Appropriations Act of 1985, thereby enabling the phasing in of foreign language study in all school systems and the hiring of foreign language teachers. In **Iowa**, two types of FLES grants have been available from the Iowa Department of Education – program planning and program implementation. Draper made note of the appropriation by the Iowa state legislature of "$400,000 for technical assistance and grants in support of elementary and secondary foreign language education."

A description of the **Louisiana** Quality Support Fund, which was established from a $600 million settlement with the federal government over disputed oil and gas revenues, was reported by Draper. This fund generated the $1.9 million available at the beginning of the 1987-1988 school year for elementary foreign language programs. The Board of Elementary and Secondary Education has passed a requirement that "all school systems establish at least one model foreign language program at the fourth grade level." The FLES program started in 1982 in **Florida** provides funds on a matching basis with local districts. Twenty-three school districts participated in 1986-1987 with 174 teachers and 50,000 students in 294 public and private schools.

Teacher Preparation Programs

Fifteen respondents indicated that FLES teacher preparation programs are available through state-supported teacher education institutions, either as programs leading to certification, or as special workshops for providing FLES instructional strategies.

In **Arkansas**, several types of preparation programs have been developed and funded by federal, state, or university sources. Title II Education for Economic Security Act (EESA) funds were used to establish a program in the summer of 1987 for the preparation of elementary teachers for foreign language teaching through immersion in French and Spanish. (See the article by Ford and Hassell on page 6). Through university funding, an experimental class offered to elementary teachers at

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Activities for Your Classroom

Activities for Your Classroom

Title: **Family Ties**

Objective: To express familial relationships

Materials: 8 1/2" x 11" face cards of members of two different families with first and last names of the family member on each card. Cards could be teacher- or student-drawn pictures, or magazine cutouts. Yarn.

Procedure: Both sets of family face cards are placed by family group in the center of the circle. Students in turn use pieces of yarn to connect family members and verbally express the familial relationships demonstrated. The complexity of what is said by the students will vary according to the level of the class. The student could point to a picture and say in the target language "The brother" or "the father." The more advanced student could generate a complete sentence such as "Anna is Susie's mother."

Contributor: Lynn Haire, Ferndale Public Schools, Ferndale, MI 48220

Classroom Activities Editor: Donna Grundstad

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studied. Furthermore, foundation executives have observed that the best practices in language instruction are generally not common practice. They are keenly interested in pursuing issues in elementary school foreign language instruction – an area that has not been specifically addressed in the school reform movement.

Topics

Participants initiated group discussion by brief introductory presentations on such topics as

- When should instruction begin?
- On what basis should foreign languages, including rarely taught major world languages, be selected for instruction?
- What does research have to say about language instruction in elementary schools?
- What teaching techniques, tools, technology, and tests are useful?
- What qualifications and training are necessary for elementary school foreign language teachers?
- What program options do elementary schools have?

The discussions brought into focus the issues of greatest importance, such as teacher preparation, that need to be addressed in detail in future meetings.

Next Step

What is the next step? The Johnson Foundation will report on the conference in the June 1988 issue of *The Wingspread Journal* (copies available from The Johnson Foundation address below). A follow-up committee has been appointed to carry out the long-term goals of the meeting. Committee members are Christine Brown, Helena Anderson Curtain, Madeline Ehrlich, Frank Grittner, Maria Ramirez, Edward Scebold, G. Richard Tucker, and Myriam Met, Chair.

Future Agenda

The follow-up committee's first task is to select its agenda from the following recommendations of the group: approach national organizations to put elementary school language instruction on the agenda of their national conventions, develop guidelines for school decision-makers, develop a research agenda, organize a national conference, develop a plan for a national project comparable to "A Nation of Readers," develop ways to bring the profession together on behalf of elementary school foreign language instruction, and contact foundations for financial support for the follow-up committee and for projects. The follow-up committee will be meeting shortly to consider these recommendations.

NNELL is very pleased with the initiative taken by The Johnson Foundation to sponsor the preliminary meeting. We would like to take this opportunity to thank them for their support of early language learning. We urge our readers to contact members of the follow-up committee to offer ideas and suggestions. *FLES NEWS* will keep you informed of the Wingspread committee's activities as it carries out its agenda.

Note: Two radio programs produced at the conference are available on cassette in the "Conversations from Wingspread" series. They are "America and the Foreign Language Crisis" (with G. Richard Tucker and Maria Ramirez) (order R-1356) and "Schooling Ourselves to Talk to the World" (with Myriam Met and Madeline Ehrilich) (order R-1357). To order, write CASSETTE REQUEST, Attn. Susan Poulsen Krogh, Director, Public Information and Program Extension, The Johnson Foundation, Box 547, Racine, WI 53401-0547. The foundation will provide these cassettes in reasonable numbers to educators without charge.

Teacher Preparation Information Requested

As part of a two-year project to expand foreign language teaching to the lower grades, the National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies is developing guidelines for curricula to prepare teachers for K-8 foreign language programs. The National Council is soliciting descriptions of existing curricula leading to teaching credentials for elementary school language teaching. From institutions that offer individual courses oriented toward teaching this age group, the National Council is seeking copies of course syllabi. For general methods courses, offered by either a language department or an education department, with a component devoted to the target group (K-8), the National Council would appreciate simply notice of the existence of such a course. Please address all correspondence to the project director: **Dr. Kurt E. Müller, NCFLIS c/o The American Forum, 45 John Street, Suite 1200, New York, NY 10038**

Summer Institute in Language Awareness Offered to Elementary School Teachers

James F. Ford and Jon B. Hassel,
Department of Foreign Languages
University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas

During the period 1983-1985, we directed summer institutes for middle school teachers of foreign languages. During the course of preparing for these institutes and through contacts with in-service teachers and administrators, we have been led to rethink the role of first and second language study in the elementary and secondary schools. We strongly believe that language awareness should begin in elementary school through an introduction to linguistic and cultural differences not only across national boundaries but also within the United States. In order to achieve these goals, we conducted a four-week summer institute for 37 in-service elementary school teachers from the mid-South region, funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities. The teachers studied two interrelated problems of language: the nature of language in general and its critical position in humanistic study and the question of second language acquisition with its concomitant literary and cultural manifestations.

We addressed the first issue because we feel strongly that a knowledge of language and linguistics is at the very heart of a humanistic education, since it is the foundation on which all further humanistic study is built. A greater awareness of how language functions should have a dual impact: it should foster the development of interpretive skills not only in literature but also in a wide variety of communicative exchanges and it should lead to a greater sensitivity to language variation, which will promote greater cross-cultural and cross-societal understanding. We think that every elementary school teacher should have an introduction to the basic principles of general linguistics, the building blocks of language awareness.

We also think that teachers should understand the nature of language acquisition, both first and second, and should study the contrasts between standard English and varieties of non-standard English. From a practical standpoint, having some knowledge of both first and second language acquisition, the teacher will be better prepared to foster the transition from spoken language to the more formal reading and writing activities that take place during the elementary years. Moreover, a better understanding of the nature of language variation should not only make the teacher more sympathetic to dialect differences but also prepare her/him to help nonstandard speakers make this transition. This is especially important in our region and in many large metropolitan areas in which there is a large population of nonstandard-English speakers.

In order to develop a greater cross-cultural view of the world, the second part of the institute's core focused on the culture and language of France and Mexico. We read and discussed with the participants both literary texts and socio-anthropologic studies. Each participant read two novels, one French and one Mexican, and a cultural study on each region. They were also introduced to some of the basic lexical, grammatical, and phonetic elements of French and Spanish. Our rationale for an introduction to foreign language learning was twofold: We believe that the experiential process of learning a second language supports and enhances the theoretical discussions of how language works, of how language is acquired, and how language reflects cultural differences. Secondly, it provides the teachers with enough basic skills and learning activities to begin exploratory language in their classrooms.

Obviously, what little language training the elementary teachers received in four weeks would not be sufficient for anything more than a very limited exploratory unit, but we thought that it would have two more far-reaching consequences: 1) they may be motivated to continue foreign language study; 2) they will have a better awareness of how language works and will be prepared to deal with language variations in their classrooms. In-service teachers are highly pragmatic and want theoretical considerations supported by practical classroom activities. Therefore, we provided materials including texts, tapes, visual materials, songs, games, etc., which they could integrate into their classrooms. Having the exposure to two Romance languages and cultures opened up a rich field of inquiry. Not only did it permit cross-cultural comparisons between our modern American culture and the two Romance cultures, but also the differences between the two foreign cultures were explored.

The participants were divided into two groups: A and B. For the first two weeks, group A studied French culture and language while group B studied Mexican culture and Spanish language. The schedule was reversed for the final two weeks. Throughout the four weeks of the institute, all students studied basic linguistics in the "Nature of Language" segment. We believe that the objectives were achieved in all aspects of the institute and that it was a highly successful and enriching experience for the participants.

We had a three-part process of evaluation:

1) Participants completed a questionnaire in which they had the opportunity to comment on their institute experience.

2) An outside evaluator, Al Gage, Supervisor of Modern Foreign Languages for the State of Oklahoma, observed during the first two and the final two days of the institute and provided us with a narrative report.

3) A local teacher and an administrator observed and evaluated the activities of the institute.

At present, we are completing follow-up visits to the participants' schools. We discuss with them the impact of the institute in their classroom. We also try to meet with principals and supervisors in order to make them aware of the goals and objectives of the institute. We have found this activity to be one of the most personally satisfying aspects of the project. We found the institute experience both highly rewarding and enlightening. The participants were extremely pleasant to work with and were highly motivated. This experience indicates to us the profound need for programs designed to promote the professional growth of in-service elementary teachers.

Publicizing FLES Editor: Carolyn Andrade

JOB OPPORTUNITY

WANTED: Full-time Spanish-speaking second grade teacher for partial immersion program. Qualification for Oregon certification required. Salary range: $18,530-$34,743 annually, depending on experience and training. Excellent benefits. Send resume, cover letter, and three recommendations to Patricia Ryan, Personnel Department, Portland Public Schools, P. O. Box 3107, Portland OR 97208-3107. (503) 249-2000, X533. Position begins August 31, 1988.

State Involvement from page 4

the University of Arkansas at Fayetteville exposed them to native cultural informants from ten different world cultures and helped them develop strategies for the inclusion of foreign language and cultural studies in the curriculum. During the summer of 1988, two FLES preparation projects will be available through funding from the Arkansas Department of Education. One of these projects will focus on French and Spanish immersion-style preparation for elementary teachers. In the other, elementary teachers and secondary foreign language teachers will collaborate on designing linguistic/cultural experiences for elementary students to be implemented by advanced-level foreign language high school students.

The **California** state legislature authorized the establishment of the California International Studies Project, which now operates six international studies resource centers. One of the centers has as its specialty the development of elementary foreign language programs. In 1987, the **Iowa** Department of Education provided $30,000 for two FLES teacher institutes aimed at preparing a total of thirty 7-12 certified teachers for K-6 certification.

As of July 1987, most of **Ohio**'s 45 institutions approved for teacher education had a certification program in one or more foreign languages for K-12. A few states, like **North Carolina**, have extensive preparation available through the K-12 certification programs. A considerable number of short-term preparation programs have also been offered recently. For example, there were 52 programs reported in **Texas**, 5 in **Wisconsin**, and 2 one-day FLES methods workshops in **Iowa**.

Certification Requirements

In 19 states, along with the District of Columbia, there are teacher certification criteria for FLES teachers. In general, most require a set number of hours in the foreign language and a methodology course for teaching a foreign language at the elementary level. Increasingly, there is also some concern that certain linguistic competencies be demonstrated, especially oral proficiencies. The requirements may be categorized broadly in four different ways.

With Secondary Foreign Language Certification. **Delaware** is an example of a state in which certification requires proficiency testing and the addition of a methods course at the elementary level.

With Elementary Education Certification. **New Hampshire** requires the addition of the foreign language(s) to be taught. **New York** will grant an extension to include the teaching of foreign language with the addition of 24 semester hours of college foreign language study in the language.

Foreign Language Certification for Grades 7-10 Changed to Grades K-12. **Georgia** is changing from 7-12 to K-12 as of the fall of 1988. **Louisiana** converts certification to 1-12 with the addition of 9 hours of professional elementary education courses. **Minnesota** has the following requirements for foreign language certification for grades 1-12:

> . . . a bachelor's degree upon the completion of a teacher's education program with a language major . . .; b) 18 semester credits in foreign language teaching at both the elementary and secondary levels and supervised student teaching at both levels; and c) a rating of good or superior by the language department . . . in five of the seven competencies defined in the Modern Language Association of America (MLA) 'Qualification for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages' and at least a minimal rating in the remaining two competencies. The competencies are to include aural understanding, speaking, reading, and writing.

New or Revised Certification Programs. **Ohio**'s program, which went into effect in July 1987, requires 45 semester hours in the foreign language, a special methods course at the elementary level, and other professional courses. An oral proficiency test will be part of the new state board competency requirement. **Oregon** has a fifth-year program whereby future elementary school teachers can choose to major in a foreign language as undergraduates. **Maine** has new certification and

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recertification program endorsements scheduled to take effect in July 1988. **Michigan**'s program requires a major or minor in foreign language plus competence in that language. **Iowa** requires 24 hours of foreign language, methods of teaching at the elementary school level, psychology of elementary-age children, and student teaching at the elementary level. **Kentucky** requires 21 foreign language semester hours for grades K-4 and 24 foreign language semester hours for grades 5-8. **Texas** has Option I (2-12 semester hours), and Option II (18 semester hours) of foreign language. **Oklahoma**'s new certification requirements, which went into effect in the fall of 1986, allow a foreign language teacher to teach K-12 but not to teach other subjects.

Some states, such as **Arkansas**, which do not have special FLES certification, allow secondary foreign language teachers to teach at the elementary level. Other states are involved in the study of certification requirements. **Arizona** has a Foreign Language Task Force to review foreign language teacher proficiency certification requirements. In **North Carolina**, a state commission has been set up to revise teacher competencies in second languages, especially oral proficiencies, in the validation process for K-12.

The Outlook

States are responding to the growing interest in the study of foreign languages in the elementary schools by changing curriculum requirements and teacher certification criteria and by allocating more funds for the establishment of programs. Interestingly, state officials have sometimes been spurred by parents who are involved in the parent-sponsored programs scheduled before or after the regular school day. The list of certified FLES teachers is short and there is an increasing demand for teachers. **North Carolina**, for example, will need 2,000 teachers through 1992! It is hoped that increased state involvement in FLES will meet the growing demand for teachers and will result in quality FLES programs nationwide.

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Parents as Partners: The FLES Experience

Nancy L. Bemis, West Hartford (CT) Public Schools

Education should be the shared responsibility of both parents and teachers. A strong home-school link is vital in fostering a meaningful and intellectually rewarding school experience. Often these bonds are tenuous and too short-lived to serve any useful purpose. Yet, once established and encouraged, this connection of parents and educators can flourish and can provide numerous educational and social opportunities for adults and youngsters alike.

A strong home-school link is vital in fostering a meaningful and intellectually rewarding school experience.

A teacher must make a conscious and meaningful commitment to this home-school connection. The educator must be professionally secure enough to open the classroom doors and relinquish some autonomy. For many of us, this is cause for anxiety and a proliferation of self-doubts. The first step is often the most difficult and should be, therefore, a small one. For example, ask a parent to help chaperon a field trip or to assist with a class project. These are time-defined, non-threatening situations. Once you feel comfortable working in this way and have built a core group of volunteers, the path is opened toward more longterm, ongoing partnerships.

Morley School, where I teach French and Spanish in the fifth and sixth grades, has developed a volunteer program that takes advantage of the talents and hours available of a significant number of parents. This volunteer program has established a strong home-school link that has benefited students, parents and teachers alike. In this article, I will describe how we have used this network to involve parents in our foreign language program during the last three years. First we will look at Morley School, its surrounding community, and the volunteer program that was initiated by the Parent-Teachers Association several years ago. Then we will see what ideas, activities and strategies proved successful to us in building a strong alliance between the FLES program and parent volunteers. As you read about our experience, compare your needs and resources to plan accordingly for effective parent involvement in your school community.

Morley School

Morley is a K-6 elementary school in the affluent suburb of West Hartford, Connecticut. The school is very accessible to, and well used by, the neighboring community. With a student population of approximately 360, ours is a combination of middle and upper middle class families, well-mixed in religious affiliations and ethnic backgrounds. Morley's longtime distinction has been the exemplary amount of volunteer time logged by its parents. During the 1986-87 school year, Morley could boast of nearly 2,000 hours of donated community time, the largest amount in the district. Parents are visible daily at the school: helping the library run smoothly, providing needed tutorial hours of instruction, chaperoning field trips, changing dates on the birthday board, pitching in with office clerical chores, managing PTA functions, writing and distributing a monthly *Morley Memo*.

During the 1986-87 school year, Morley School could boast of nearly 2,000 hours of donated community time.

As the only FLES teacher in the school, I was fortunate to be able to take advantage of an established and deeply-committed volunteer network. This network is directed by a Volunteer Coordinator, a position created by the PTA several years ago. The coordinator's primary responsibilities are to assess staff needs, usually done shortly after school opens in September and then find parents who can help to meet the teachers' needs.

The Volunteer Coordinator at Morley School, Ki Miller, an indefatigable and indispensable Morley parent, exemplifies the characteristics needed in such a position. The coordinator must be able to match school needs efficiently and accurately to available parents — a task that requires organization and a volume of information in an ever-ready memory bank. Also needed are a calm, capable demeanor and a sense of humor to defuse any potentially volatile situation. For example, where can we get ten dozen loaves of French bread for the Mardi Gras? Ask Ki! Who might be able to translate a play script into Spanish? Ask Ki! Need someone to accompany you on a class trip? If no one else is available, Ki frequently volunteers herself. This kind of support by a coordinator who is a staunch educational advocate is fundamental to a successful volunteer program.

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Involving Parents in FLES at Morley

Ki and I teamed successfully when she first assumed the role of Coordinator of Volunteers in the fall of 1985. Trying to project my needs for that year, I sought help in three areas: occasional field trips, in-class craft or cooking projects, a proposed committee that would plan special language events. That fall, I took my first tentative steps in involving parents in my classroom. Some helped the children bake skull-shaped cookies for *Día de los Muertos*, while others shared slides of foreign travel and accompanied us to a French restaurant in Hartford for a delicious lunch.

The following spring, I approached Ki with an idea borrowed from a colleague in a neighboring community. Did she think, I asked, that a Friday evening dinner for my students and their parents would generate enough interest to be economically and educationally viable? Our enthusiasm grew as we brainstormed the possibilities. From the beginning, we agreed to promote family activities where parents and their youngsters could eat, enjoy some simple entertainment, mingle socially with friends and neighbors, and thus spend a couple of hours together away from other pressures. Activities would begin and end early enough (6:00-7:30 p.m.) to enable other social commitments to be met or to allow parents to leave siblings for a specified length of time. My foreign language students would play an active role in both preparation and "on site" service. Menu and decor would reflect a generic international theme.

Galvanized by these initial decisions, Ki gathered our first core group of FLES parents. Five or six mothers agreed to meet with us and weigh my proposal. In our first 45 minute meeting we agreed to give the newly-dubbed *Café International* a try, chose a date, prepared a tentative menu, and identified individuals to coordinate the food, decorations, and kitchen staff. The enthusiasm and creativity of this group was inspiring. We concluded this first meeting on a positive and confident note.

Our time was short, the pace hectic, but our first *Café International* crystallized in five weeks' time. Students eagerly volunteered to be servers for the evening. In fact, the response was so great that the necessary ten names were finally drawn by lot! With the help of parents; I conducted after-school workshops to make large paper flowers for the tables, design thematic place mats, and color two wall-sized murals drawn by our teaching specialist, Dan Hansen, and myself. We made invitations in class that included an R.S.V.P. form so that an accurate dinner tally might be obtained. Parents were given the option of paying a nominal fee or making an entrée such as quiche or frittata or a dessert. Recipes were provided!

We had hoped for a turnout of 100 people [at our first Café International.] Our final tally was close to 160.

Students assisted with the decoration of the cafeteria the afternoon of the event and both anticipation and excitement were peaking. We had hoped for a turnout of 100 people. Our final tally was close to 160, as tables filled the cafeteria and spilled into the language classroom as well.

The *Café International* generated rave reviews. It was clear that the event merited a repeat performance. Anticipating the projected size of the crowd, the next year's committee voted to sponsor two separate dinners: one for French students and one for Spanish. For the *Cantina Mexicana*, students made colorful serapes to wear, tin lanterns for the tables, and rehearsed a play in Spanish and English depicting the legendary founding of Mexico City. The menu featured chili as the main dish and flan for dessert, with parents again providing the food. One hundred fifteen people attended the event on January 23, 1987. The only Spanish students absent were those away for the weekend!

The French evening was built around a *Mardi Gras* theme. Students lined the walls with life-sized tracings of people waving and cheering the parade's passing. Each figure wore a colorful costume of the youngster's design. The atmosphere was lively. Students arrived in costume to find a darkened cafeteria illuminated by candles in wine bottles, traditional red and white checkered tablecloths, and a proliferation of balloons and crepe paper streamers festooning the walls and ceiling. This time, the evening's crêpes and salads were catered, paid for on a per-person basis by the families attending. Again, the turnout was impressive. By now the interest of the whole school had been piqued. To demonstrate support and to free parents to enjoy the family night, Morley's principal, secretary, and school nurse staffed the kitchen! This was a delightful example of the spirit and cohesiveness in evidence at this school.

In sum, each of our events was held early on a Friday night, from 6:00 to 7:30 p.m. This was, surprisingly, the evening least crowded with meetings and other commitments for all concerned. The early hour left time for later engagements, if need be. Also, the dinners were open to language students and parents only — no siblings, grandparents, friends. Originally, we decided this simply to keep numbers manageable. What we learned is that, in an age where quality time between parent and child is at a premium, this sort of well-orchestrated experience met a real family need and was welcomed.

Thus, we have seen a critical support group take shape and develop around the FLES program at Morley. Because the language curriculum is offered only in the fifth and sixth grades, it was at risk of slipping by, relatively unnoticed. Parents were not likely to have much contact with the "specials" teacher, but I felt strongly that this trend had to be changed.

In our experience, the initial effort to forge a link between the FLES program and parents was not only easy but also paid back immediate dividends. Factors that might have been negative turned out, instead, to be positive. Because the language program was new in the fifth and sixth grades, parents were eager to volunteer for a new experience. The fact that the youngsters' exposure to the language program was limited to three times per week only, served to increase the parents' desire to become involved.

The bottom line is that the foreign lan-

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guage program is an attraction for parent volunteers. It should be noted, however, that the nature of the community in which the school is located may affect the type and amount of parental involvement. Schools in areas where a large percentage of the population consists of single-parent families, who of necessity must work or care for younger children, may not be able to find daytime volunteers. However, parental involvement need not be confined to the school day. Early evening activities, such as our Friday night suppers, have proven successful. They serve the dual purpose of highlighting the foreign language program in a cultural context and of providing a unique opportunity for the parents and child to spend time together.

Studies have shown that schools fortunate enough to have high levels of parental involvement manifest improved academic achievement. Other studies have indicated that the lower the socioeconomic level of the community, the less parental involvement occurs. If your school is located in such an area, the effort to involve parents is not impossible, only a bit more difficult. The end result should prove very rewarding since students in these areas are often the ones who benefit most from the enrichment parent volunteers can offer.

Suggestions

In conclusion, we offer some concrete suggestions for involving parent volunteers in the FLES program:

1 Be specific about the kind of help you need. Identify the tasks to be done and explain carefully to the Volunteer Coordinator or, if you do not have a Coordinator, directly to the parent volunteer.

2 Pay sufficient attention to sound volunteer program management. If you have a Volunteer Coordinator, work with that person to see that the parents' time and talents are used effectively. If you do not have a Volunteer Program, work with your administration and/or the PTA to establish one and see that the position of Coordinator is filled by a responsible person.

3 Value the parent volunteer's assistance in providing academic and other support services to your students. Keep them visible and make your shared time an enjoyable and productive experience for everyone. ●

This article is based on a workshop given by Nancy L. Bemis and Ki Miller at the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 23-26 April 1987, in New York, NY.

Hallman

Spanish (Grades K-12)

Subject Area Knowledge and Skills

Certification Examination

SPANISH

1 Proficiency in speaking

1. Give direction in teaching situations.
2.w/4 Narrate, describe, or explain in past, present, and future tenses.
3.w/5 Explain points of view in a simple fashion.
4.w/2 Respond to situations of everyday life with ease and circumlocution in unfamiliar situations.
5.w/2 Control general vocabulary with reasonable fluency and ease of speech; pronunciation errors never interfere with understanding.
6. Communicate on concrete topics relating to particular interests or current events.

2 Proficiency in listening

1. Understand and interpret radio broadcasts and telephone conversations on nontechnical subjects.
2. Understand conversations about routine social conventions, everyday topics, well-known current events, and teaching situations in standard Spanish at a normal rate of speech.
3. Understand the essential points of a discussion or speech at an elementary level or on a topic in a special field of interest.

3 Proficiency in writing

1. Write routine social correspondence or simple discourses of at least several paragraphs on familiar topics.
2. Write short narratives and descriptions in the past, present, and future tenses.
3. Write about daily situations and/or current events in some detail, using basic structures with some circumlocution.
4. Paraphrase in accordance with the rules of Spanish.
5. Apply the most common punctuation conventions.
6. Control noun, adjective, and verb morphology and the most frequently used syntactic structures.
7. Use cohesive devices such as object pronouns.
8. Join sentences in limited discourse so that paragraphs are reasonably unified and coherent.

4 Proficiency in reading

1. Demonstrate comprehension in reading simple printed material on a familiar subject (sport, travel, movies, theatre, food, music, or current events).
2. Demonstrate comprehension in reading news items.
3. Identify basic ideas in contemporary simple prose.
4. Comprehend sequence of events and time differentiations through tense discriminations.

5 Familiarity with Hispanic culture

1. Identify appropriate behavior in most social situations and recognize common rules of etiquette and courtesy.
2. Demonstrate knowledge of geography, history, music, art, and literature of the Hispanic world.
3. Demonstrate knowledge of Hispanic values and beliefs.

6 Knowledge of grammar

1. Demonstrate the correct usage of subjunctive/indicative.
2. Demonstrate the correct usage of que vs. cual.
3. Demonstrate the correct usage of por vs. para.
4. Demonstrate the correct usage of ser vs. estar, saber vs. conocer, pedir vs. preguntar, tocar vs. jugar, ir vs. venir.
5. Demonstrate the correct usage of the preterite/imperfect.
6. Demonstrate usage of correct agreement (gender, number, subject-verb).
7. Demonstrate the correct usage of objects (personal a and pronouns).
8. Demonstrate the correct usage of adjectives (shortened, position, comparison).
9. Demonstrate the correct usage of indefinite articles.
10. Demonstrate the correct usage of definite articles.
11. Demonstrate the correct usage of infinitives.
12. Demonstrate the correct usage of command forms.
13. Demonstrate the correct usage of verb conjugations and tense selection.

7 Knowledge of methodology

1. Identify appropriate diagnostic and assessment techniques.
2. Identify the major characteristics of the grammar-translation method.
3. Identify the major characteristics and techniques of the audiolingual method.
4. Identify communicative exercises and teaching techniques (TPR, etc.).
5. Recognize curriculum and materials of a proficiency-based teaching approach.

at various educational levels, K-5

6/8/88 as well as 7-12

Spanish (Grades K-12)

Certification Examination

Proposed Content Outline

Spanish

		% By Skill	% By Comp
I.	Speaking		25
	A. Giving directions to students	6.2	
	B. Communicating on concrete topics	6.2	
	C. Using past, present, and future tenses	6.3	
	D. Explaining points of view	-	
	E. Responding to situations of everyday life with ease and circumlocuting	-	
	F. General vocabulary, fluency, and pronunciation errors	6.3	
II.	Listening Comprehension		20
	A. Conversations in standard Spanish	6.6	
	B. Radio broadcasts and telephone conversations	6.7	
	C. Elementary level discussions or speeches	6.7	
III.	Writing		12
	A. Social correspondence and simple discourses	-	
	B. Short narratives and descriptions in different tenses	2.4	
	C. Using Basic structures and circumlocution	-	
	D. Paraphrasing correctly	-	
	E. Common punctuation conventions	2.4	
	F. Morphology and syntactic structures	2.4	
	G. Cohesive devices	2.4	
	H. Sentences and paragraphs combinations	2.4	
IV.	Reading comprehension		10
	A. Simple printed material	2.5	
	B. Items in newspapers and nontechnical magazines	2.5	
	C. Contemporary simple prose	2.5	
	D. Sequence of events, time differentiations, and tense discriminations	2.5	
V.	Culture		9
	A. Rules of etiquette and courtesy	3.0	
	B. Geography, history, music, art, and literature of the Hispanic world	3.0	
	C. Hispanic values and beliefs	3.0	
VI.	Grammar		15
	A. Subjunction/indicative	1.5	
	B. Que vs cual	1.5	
	C. Por vs para	1.5	
	D. Verb pair choices (e.g. ser vs estar)	1.5	
	E. Preterite/imperfect	1.5	
	F. Correct agreement	1.5	
	G. Objects	1.5	
	1. personal a		
	2. pronouns		
	H. Adjectives	1.5	
	1. shortened		
	2. position		
	3. comparison		
	I. Indifinite articles	1.5	

	J.	Definite articles	1.5
	K.	Infinitives	1.5
	L.	Command forms	1.5
	M.	Verb conjugations and tense selection	1.5
VII.	Methodology		9
	A.	Diagnostic and assessment techniques	2.0
	B.	Characteristics of the grammar-translation method	1.0
	C.	Characteristics and techniques of the audio-lingual method	1.0
	D.	Communicative exercises and teaching techniques (TPR, etc.)	2.6
	E.	Curriculum and materials	2.4

SPANISH - Certification
Content Outline

			ACTFL Equivalency	FSI Equivalency
I.	*Speaking	25%	Advanced Plus	2+
II.	Listening	20%	Advanced	
III.	Writing	12%	Advanced	
IV.	Reading	10%	Advanced	
V.	Culture	9%	Advanced	
VI.	Grammar	15%		
VII.	**Methodology	9%		

* Although we recognize the validity of Krashen's input hypothesis vis-a-vis Spanish, and therefore the superior listening skills versus speaking ability, the latter is deemed more germane for teachers than the former with respect to proficiency.

** In view of the extension of certification of Spanish to include all levels (K-12), we strongly recommend that universities address pedagogical techniques for all age levels in each required methodology course.

6/16/88

APPROACH - theories about the nature of language and language learning

Approach or Method	Theory of Language	Theory of Learning
The Oral Approach	Structuralism. Knowledge of language structures is linked to situations in which they are used.	Behaviorism. Learning results from habit formation.
The Audiolingual Method	Structural linguistics. This is a reaction to traditional Latin-based grammar approaches. All language can now be described in terms of phonetics, morphology and syntax. Mastering these elements of language results in language learning. The primary medium of language is oral.	Behaviors result from 3 crucial elements - a stimulus, a response and a reinforcement. A reinforcement in language learning is approval by the teacher and other students. Language mastery is acquiring a set of appropriate stimulus-response chains.
Communicative Language Teaching	Language is communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop communicative competence.	Activities that involve real communication promote learning. Language must be meaningful to the learner.
Total Physical Response	Structuralist or grammar-based view. Grammar and vocabulary can be learned from the skillful use of verbs by the instructor.	Behaviorism. L1 and L2 are parallel processes. Stress lowers learning. Motor activity must be paired with language to produce learning.
The Silent Way	Structural approach. Language consists of groups of sounds associated with specific meanings and is organized by grammar rules.	Artificial and strictly controlled approach in which the learner commits the self to L2 learning through the use of silent awareness and active trial.
Community Language Learning	Language is a social process in which the speaker is both subject and object of his own message. Learners (students) and knowers (teachers) interact on different levels as the learners become more assertive and independent.	Whole-person learning is a holistic approach to language learning involving both cognitive and affective factors. Learning takes place in a communicative situation of interaction between learners and knowers. Learners go through 5 stages ranging from "birth" to "adult."
The Natural Approach	Communication is the primary function of language. Meaning is everything; structure is relatively unimportant.	Based on Krashen's language acquisition theory, the focus is on 5 hypotheses - theory of acquisition/learning hypothesis, monitor hypothesis, natural order hypothesis, affective filter hypothesis and input hypothesis.
Suggestopedia	Little stated theory, but hints of "meaningful texts" lead one to assume comprehensible input. However, emphasis is also on direct translation and use of word pairs which indicate a grammar-based theory of language.	Humans learn by unloading memory reserves of unwanted memories through "desuggestion," and load them with desired memories through "suggestion." This operates through "authority" as the individual best learns information coming from authoritative sources. Information is also best learned if paired with music, tone and rhythm to induce a relaxed attitude.

Chart developed by Kerri Nolan and based on information from J.C. Richards and T.S. Rodgers' Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1986.

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DESIGN - instructional system consisting of objectives, the syllabus, activities, and roles of students, teachers and materials

Approach or Method	Objectives	Syllabus	Activities	Learner Roles	Teacher Roles	Material Roles
The Oral Approach	Teach 4 basic language skills - read, write, speak, comprehend	Structural syllabus of basic language structures and word lists	Situations presented through realia; guided repetition; drills, oral based reading and writing	Controlled by teacher to avoid bad language habits	Model and language manipulator	Tightly organized text and visual aids
The Audiolingual Method	Develop early oral skills eventually into native-like fluency	Linguistic syllabus of first oral, then written language	Dialogues and drills emphasizing correct pronunciation, stress, rhythm and grammar structures	Directed by skilled techniques to produce correct responses	Teacher is central and active in the classroom	Tape recorder and visuals used a lot; text used later
Communicative Language Teaching	Develop communicative competence	Interactional, task-based and learner-generated syllabus	Task completion which often requires such communicating processes as negotiation and information sharing	Negotiator between self, learning process and language	Communication facilitator and participant in activities	Texts, tasks such as role-play; realia such as signs and maps
Total Physical Response	Beginning level oral proficiency	Sentence-based syllabus; meaning is important	Imperative drills; physical responses; dialogues and role-plays later	Listener and performer	Director of student performers	No text; some realia and materials later
The Silent Way	Beginning level oral/aural proficiency	Structural syllabus planned around grammar items and vocabulary	Teacher models language, eliciting student responses	Experiences independence and personal growth from learning	Controlled, resists modelling too much; teaches, tests and gets out of the way	Colored rods, pronunciation wall charts
Community Language Learning	Near-native oral mastery through social learning	Syllabus is based on student selected topics	Task-based group activities such as translations, discussions, reflections	Student is a member of a community; students teach each other	A counselor who nurtures language and personal growth	No text; learners/knowers develop materials
The Natural Approach	Develop intermediate oral proficiency	Syllabus depends on students' needs	Emphasis on comprehensible input through visuals; some borrowing from TPR and other methods	Learner is a processor of comprehensible input	Source of comprehensible input; creator of positive classroom atmosphere	Materials relate to real world
Suggestopedia	Deliver advanced oral proficiency quickly	Intensive 30 day syllabus based on dialogues/music	Imitation of dialogues, questions and answers, role-plays, listening	Passive child, very committed to course	Authoritative, serious; in control of students	Text, tapes, music, special desks

Chart developed by Kerri Nolan and based on information from J.C. Richards and T.S. Rodgers' Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1986.

PROCEDURE - techniques, practices and behaviors in teaching a language

Approach or Method	Classroom Procedures
The Oral Approach	Procedures vary according to the level of the class, but always move from controlled to freer practice of structure and from oral use of sentence patterns to automatic use in speech, reading and writing. A typical lesson plan consists of 1) pronunciation, 2) revision, 3) presentation of new grammar structures or vocabulary, 4) drills, 5) and either reading of material or written exercises using the new material.
The Audiolingual Method	The focus of instruction is on immediate and accurate speech. The target language is used as the medium of instruction. Translation and use of L1 are discouraged. The teacher may begin the lesson by modelling a dialogue and then adapting it according to the interests of the class. Students act out the dialogue. Drills of key structures and vocabulary activities are done. Introduction of material is followed up by work in a language lab.
Communicative Language Teaching	Procedures vary a lot. One possible procedure is that the teacher presents a brief dialogue, relates it to the students' experiences and discusses it with the class. There is oral practice of the dialogue, followed by student/teacher questions and answers. The class ends by discussing more indepth a particular communicative expression from the dialogue through use of realia or tasks such as role-play.
Total Physical Response	Lessons consist of a series of one sentence commands to which students physically respond. New words are introduced through new commands. Students also utter commands in order to manipulate the behavior of the teacher and other students.
The Silent Way	Lessons first focus on pronunciation through the use of a pronunciation wall chart. The teacher models sounds after pointing them out on the chart. Students must remember the sounds and be able to repeat them when the teacher later points them out on the chart again. Another procedure is the use of colored rods. The teacher may select one, say the name of its color and go into a variety of utterances all about the rods (colors, numbers, who has them, etc.).
Community Language Learning	It is common to have all learners (students) and knowers (teachers) sitting in a circle facing each other. The class is limited to 12 learners. Lessons may consist of greetings, conversation, reflection, transcription of conversations which highlight elements of grammar and spelling, questions and copying of earlier transcriptions.
The Natural Approach	Many activities are adapted from other methods. The procedures may vary widely. One possibility is to begin with activities based on Total Physical Response in order to learn commands, body parts, numbers and the names of classroom objects. New vocabulary and situations may be introduced through the use of visuals (pictures, realia). The teacher must maintain a continuous flow of comprehensible input.
Suggestopedia	This is a 30 day course divided into 10 units. Each unit lasts 3 days and focuses on a lengthy dialogue. Each day is 4 hours. In the first part of the day, the teacher presents previously learned material to the class for discussion as in a seminar setting. Later, new material is presented and discussed. Students look over the new dialogue and L1 translation. Finally, there is a seance or concert session in which the teacher reads the new dialogue accompanied by recorded music. Students are completely relaxed. After some silent reflection on the dialogue, students leave the room without speaking.

Chart developed by Kerri Nolan and based on information from J.C. Richards and T.S. Rodgers' Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1986.

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(1986)

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TEACHING LANGUAGE IN CONTEXT

PROFICIENCY-ORIENTED INSTRUCTION

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1

First Principles

As stated in the Preface, this book begins with a question that can be expressed in terms that are deceptively simple: How can we help students learning a second language in a classroom setting become proficient in that language? If one takes a moment to analyze the question, at least three subquestions emerge almost immediately:

1. What does *proficient* mean?
2. How do people become proficient in a language?
3. What characterizes a classroom environment in which opportunities to become proficient are maximized?

With each of these subquestions, a new area of inquiry is opened, raising issues that are equally difficult to resolve. Being proficient implies that one *knows* a language, but to what degree? A given student might *know* a little German, but not enough to really *do* anything with it. The student's knowledge of another foreign language, Spanish, will allow him or her to carry on a simple conversation and handle his or her needs as a tourist. But the student wouldn't say that he or she really knows Spanish. The individual certainly does not claim to be proficient in that language. What does *knowing a language* involve? How proficient can people become in a language other than their own? Is there a difference between the way people learn their native language and the way they learn a second one? What does *learn* mean? Can people become proficient in a second language in a formal classroom environment? Is the age at which a person begins to acquire a language a factor? To what degree or level can a person's competence develop in a second language if he or she begins study as an adult? What are the features of a proficiency-oriented approach to instruction? What curriculum and materials should a teacher choose?

As these and related questions are raised, the illusion of simplicity with which this book began soon disappears. Yet we cannot avoid the fundamental issues because they are complex. As classroom teachers, we will need to have some answers before we can feel confident about teaching a second language to someone else. In this chapter, some of the answers that have been proposed in recent years to these and other questions will be explored. Then, based on our best working hypotheses, we will attempt to extract from that knowledge base a set of principles for proficiency-oriented instruction.

Defining Language Proficiency

What does it mean to be *proficient* in a language? What does one have to know in terms of grammar, vocabulary, sociolinguistic appropriateness, kinesics, cultural understanding, and the like in order to know a language well enough to use it for some real-world purpose?

We might shed some light on these questions by understanding first what *proficient* means in a more general context. The *American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* (1978) defines *proficient* as "performing in a given art, skill or branch of knowledge with expert correctness and facility," and further specifies that the term implies "a high degree of competence through training" (p. 1045). Implied in this definition, then, is the idea that *proficiency* refers to a somewhat idealized level of competence and performance, attainable by experts through extensive instruction.

The terms *competence* and *performance*, as used in the dictionary definition, introduce yet another complication. This basic distinction, used for centuries by philosophers and scientists to characterize all types of knowledge, became fundamental to Chomsky's (1965) theory of transformational-generative grammar. Chomsky distinguished between an *idealized* native speaker's underlying *competence*—referring to knowledge of the system of the language, including rules of grammar, vocabulary, and how linguistic elements can be combined to form acceptable sentences—and the individual's *performance*—or actual production and comprehension of specific linguistic events. Because the native speaker's performance is so often marred by variables such as limitations in memory, distractions, errors, false starts, hesitations, pauses, omissions, and repetitions, Chomsky believed that actual performance did not reflect the underlying grammar that linguistic theory sought to describe:

> *Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge to the language in actual performance. (p.3)*

Thus, Chomsky felt that, for the purposes of developing a linguistic theory, it was methodologically necessary to study and describe language through idealized abstractions rather than through records of natural speech, in which deviation from the rules was common.

Campbell and Wales (1970) accepted the methodological distinction between competence and actual performance as legitimate, as do most linguists. (For a thorough discussion of this point, see also Canale and Swain, 1980a.) However, they were among the first theorists to point out that Chomsky's competence-performance dichotomy does not include any reference to either the *appropriateness* of an utterance to a particular situation or context or its *sociocultural significance*. For Campbell and Wales, the degree to which a person's production or understanding of the language is appropriate to the context in which it takes place is even more important than its grammaticality.

Hymes (1972) also felt that there are rules of language use, closely related to the rules of social interaction and appropriate social behavior, that are neglected in Chomsky's view of language. Both Hymes and Campbell and Wales proposed a much broader view, in which grammatical competence is but one component of the overall knowledge the native speaker possesses. They termed this broader notion *communicative competence* and incorporated into that concept the knowledge of the rules of language use, including sociolinguistic and contextual competence, in addition to grammatical competence. They maintained the theoretical distinction, as had Chomsky, between communicative competence and *communicative performance*, a term that reflected language in actual use, with all of the performance errors that derive from nonlinguistic factors.

From Grammatical Competence to Communicative Competence

In the early 1970s, some linguists and researchers, proceeding from the work cited above, began to refer to *communicative competence* as a notion that was distinct from *grammatical* or *linguistic competence*. For a period of years in the early to middle part of the decade, communicative competence became synonymous, in the minds of some researchers and practitioners, with a disregard for grammatical accuracy, and second language learners were considered communicatively competent if they got their meaning across to a listener, even if their grammatical accuracy was relatively low. As Canale and Swain point out, there was some disagreement in the literature of the 1970s about whether or not the notion of communicative competence included grammatical competence as one of its components.

It is common to find the term "communicative competence" used to refer exclusively to knowledge or capability relating to the rules of language use, and the term "grammatical (or linguistic) competence" used to refer to the rules of

grammar. . . . It is equally common to find these terms used in the manner in which Hymes (1972) and Campbell and Wales (1970) use them. (p. 5)

Perhaps one of the best-known studies involving the concept of communicative competence in the early 1970s was that done by Savignon (1972) at the University of Illinois. In that study, Savignon sought to compare the effects of various types of practice on communicative skills development. Her definition of communicative competence did incorporate linguistic competence as one of its components: "*Communicative competence* may be defined as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting—that is, in a dynamic exchange in which *linguistic competence* must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors" (p. 8). She went on to point out that successful communication would depend largely on the individual's willingness to take a risk and express himself in the foreign language, and on his resourcefulness in using the vocabulary and structures under his control to make himself understood. According to Savignon, the use of gestures, intonation, and facial expression also contributes to communication, but linguistic accuracy, though of some importance, should be considered as only one of the major constituents of a communicative exchange.

Higgs and Clifford (1982), in discussing this definition of communicative competence, find it somewhat unclear, especially with regard to the role of linguistic accuracy:

What [Savignon] means when she says that "linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input" . . . is not immediately clear, since linguistic competence can scarcely adapt itself to anything. But in the section [of her study entitled] "Experimental Strategies" we read that "students were urged to use every means at their disposal to understand and make themselves understood . . . . [The] experimenter and the other fluent speakers . . ., reacted to what was said, not to how it was said." From these and other sources in her study we conclude that what Savignon must mean . . . is that the student should be ready to abandon the linguistic system per se *of the target language and instead seek out other communication strategies for making himself understood. (p. 58)*

In a later definition of communicative competence, Savignon outlines the following characteristics:

1. Communicative competence is a dynamic rather than a static concept that depends on the *negotiation of meaning* between two or more persons who share some knowledge of the language. "In this sense, then, communicative competence can be said to be an *interpersonal* rather than an intrapersonal trait" (p.8).

2. Communicative competence should not be thought of as only an oral phenomenon. It applies to both written and spoken language.
3. Communicative competence is context-specific, in that communication always takes place in a particular context or situation. The communicatively competent language user will know how to make appropriate choices in register and style to fit the particular situation in which communication occurs.
4. It is important to bear in mind the theoretical distinction between *competence* and *performance*. "Competence is what one *knows*. Performance is what one *does*. Only performance is observable, however, and it is only through performance that competence can be developed, maintained, and evaluated" (p. 9).
5. Communicative competence is *relative* and depends on the cooperation of all those involved.

Savignon's view of the notion of communicative competence emphasizes the *negotiative* nature of communication. This is certainly an important point, and one that should be kept in mind when assessing any given sample of speech, writing, or receptive skills performance. This view of communicative competence does not lend itself easily, however, to determining in any precise way the degree to which an individual is communicatively competent, a problem also pointed out by Higgs and Clifford:

There are several conspicuous lacunae in the foregoing discussions of communicative competence. For example, no detailed analysis is typically made of the type of linguistic functions which the communicators are attempting to use; nor is there analysis of their complexity or of the contexts in which they presumably are framed. All of these areas are of extreme importance in assessing language competence. Instead, the apparent assumption is that the same communication skills that allow one to obtain food in a restaurant would also serve to negotiate a business contract or an international treaty. Furthermore, little consideration is given to the accuracy of the message conveyed in terms of the level of involvement and active cooperation of the hypothetical listener. Clearly, it is easier to order a meal than it is to convince a businessman through logical argumentation that his financial interests are best served by the firm or government one is representing. (p. 59)

Most of the definitions of communicative competence discussed in this section do not provide the type of detailed quantitative or qualitative analysis of components of communication that Higgs and Clifford would like to see included in a theoretical model of the concept. In fact, each definition includes slightly different components or views the relationship

or importance of components to be somewhat different. The role of grammatical accuracy is one dimension along which most definitions of the term vary, as work done subsequent to Savignon's study shows.

Munby (1978) contends that the term *communicative competence* should include the notion of grammatical competence because the opposing view could lead to two misleading conclusions: (1) that grammatical competence and communicative competence need to be taught separately, usually with the former taught first; and (2) that grammatical competence is not an essential component of communicative competence.

Canale and Swain (1980a) provide an extensive review of the theoretical models of communicative competence. They maintain that even instructors who agree that grammatical competence is indeed an important part of communicative competence could still prefer to teach grammatical competence separately from or prior to the teaching of sociolinguistic rules of language use:

> *Just as Hymes (1972) was able to say that there are rules of grammar that would be useless without rules of language use, so we feel that there are rules of language use that would be useless without rules of grammar. (p. 5)*

Munby's theory of communicative competence is based on three components—a socio-cultural orientation, a socio-semantic view of linguistic knowledge, and the rules of discourse. According to Canale and Swain the most directly applicable description of this last component for second language teaching is that discussed by Widdowson (1978), who makes the fundamental distinction between *cohesion* and *coherence*. *Cohesion* is concerned with the way propositions are linked structurally in a text (oral or written) and how the literal meaning of a text is interpreted. Cohesive elements include the use of pronouns, grammatical connectors, and lexical cohesion and the direct repetition of the same term to refer to the same object. *Coherence*, on the other hand, refers to the ways contextual meanings are related and linked in the parts of the discourse; that is, it refers to the relationships among the different ideas in a text. According to Charolles (1978), coherence is achieved by the continuity of thought or meaning, the development of ideas previously expressed, the internal consistency of the discourse, and the congruity of the parts of the text to one another, among other things. One example that Widdowson gives to illustrate this last point is the following series of statements, which, on the surface, might appear incongruent if only their literal meaning and surface form are considered without attention to function:

Speaker A: That's the telephone.
Speaker B: I'm in the bath.
Speaker A: O.K. (p. 29)

When the function of these statements is considered, the coherence of the dialogue becomes evident: speaker A requests that speaker B answer the phone, speaker B makes an excuse for not complying with the request, and speaker A then accepts the excuse. (See Canale, 1983, for further discussion of the components of discourse competence mentioned here.)

Widdowson's theoretical distinction between cohesion and coherence as discourse factors is taken into consideration in the model of communicative competence proposed by Canale and Swain (1980a) and modified by Canale (1983) in a subsequent discussion. Canale and Swain's model, which comprises all four skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—also draws on the work of such theorists as Campbell and Wales, Hymes, and Munby. They propose an integrative view of communicative competence with four major components: (1) grammatical competence, (2) sociolinguistic competence, (3) discourse competence, and (4) strategic competence.

Grammatical competence refers to the degree to which the language user has mastered the linguistic code. It includes knowledge of vocabulary, rules of pronunciation and spelling, word formation, and sentence structure. Canale and Swain (1980b) maintain that such competence is an essential concern for any communicative approach that is oriented toward the eventual attainment of higher levels of proficiency, in which accuracy of understanding and expression are important goals.

Sociolinguistic competence addresses the extent to which grammatical forms can be used or understood appropriately in various contexts to convey specific communicative functions, such as persuading, describing, narrating, and giving commands. Such factors as topic, role of the participants, and setting will determine the appropriateness of the attitude conveyed by the speaker and his choice of style or register. A style that is appropriate among friends, for example, may be totally inappropriate in a more formal setting.

Discourse competence, the third component of the Canale and Swain model, involves the ability to combine ideas to achieve cohesion in form and coherence in thought. A person who has a highly developed degree of discourse competence will know how to use cohesive devices, such as pronouns and grammatical connectors (i.e., conjunctions, adverbs, and transitional phrases and expressions), to achieve unity of thought and continuity in a text. The competent language user will also be skilled in expressing and judging the relationships among the different ideas in a text (coherence).

Strategic competence, the final component of the model, involves the use of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies to compensate for gaps in the language user's knowledge of the code or for breakdown in communication for other reasons. This component is qualitatively different from the other three in that the more proficient or communicatively competent an individual becomes, the less he or she needs to draw on strategic

competence. However, even educated native speakers sometimes experience breakdowns in their communication with others for a variety of reasons and must rely on this component for the successful transmission of messages.

Although Canale and Swain refer to their theoretical framework as a model of communicative competence, they acknowledge that the term *communicative competence* itself may be problematic, since there has been so much disagreement and confusion about what it means. Canale (1983) maintains that "the distinction between communicative competence and actual communication remains poorly understood . . . in the second language field" (p. 4). He prefers the term *actual communication* to the earlier term *communicative performance*, used in the 1980 version of the Canale and Swain model, since the latter term tends to lead to confusion with Chomsky's competence-performance distinction.

Canale stresses, however, that the term *communicative competence* as he is using it refers to both underlying *knowledge* about language and communicative language use and *skill*, or how well an individual can perform with this knowledge base in actual communication situations. This conceptualization of the term is very similar to the notion of *proficiency*, to be described in the next section. The most recent conceptualization of the term *proficiency* includes specifications about the *levels* of competence attained in terms of the *functions* performed, the *contexts* in which the language user can function, and the *accuracy* with which the language is used. Thus, the notion of *proficiency* enables us to broaden our understanding of *communicative competence* to include more than the "threshhold level" needed to simply get one's message across. As Higgs and Clifford have indicated:

> *A student cannot merely be declared competent in communication. The functions that he is competent to express must be specified. The degree of proficiency required to survive as a tourist is not the same as that required to negotiate treaties. One finds that content areas and language functions needed for discussing abstract ideas differ from those used in telling about one's immediate needs or one's latest European vacation. . . . We must tell [our students] not that they are competent to speak German, but that they are competent to meet routine physical and social obligations in an environment where German is spoken. (pp. 60–61)*

The definition of the term *proficiency*, as it is currently being used in both government and academic contexts, along with a rationale for its widespread use in describing both communicative competence and performance, is given in the next sections.

From Communicative Competence to Proficiency

The notion of *proficiency* is not new to second language learning theory or practice. In the area of language testing, the distinction between *achieve-*

ment and *proficiency* testing has been used for many years to differentiate between the two basic kinds of information that the two different types of measurement are intended to provide about a given learner's competence. Comprehension of this difference is fundamental to understanding what the term *proficiency* implies, both within and beyond the testing context.

Achievement tests are used to evaluate students' acquisition of certain specified course content. Classroom quizzes, unit tests, and semester exams are examples of this type of testing, in which mastery of course material is the criterion. Because this course material is finite, it is possible to earn a perfect score by answering all items correctly. A student can prepare for such tests because they are based on specified and predefined material already presented and practiced in class. Strictly speaking, a valid achievement test will not ask students to do tasks that have not been *covered* during the course of instruction.

Proficiency tests, on the other hand, are used to measure an individual's general competence in a second language, independent of any particular curriculum or course of study. It is not possible to prepare for a proficiency test in the same way one might study for an achievement test, since the tasks presented and the elements included are not limited to a specified body of material.

Although the concept of proficiency testing is familiar to most second language educators, such tests have not been widely used in classrooms to measure student progress. Such standardized proficiency tests as the *MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests* and the *MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students* (see Clark, 1972) have normally been reserved for research, placement, and certification purposes. Consequently, classroom teachers have generally not had the opportunity to assess their students' generalized language competencies against a common metric, and have had to rely almost exclusively on their own self-prepared achievement tests to measure students' progress.

The assessment of oral skills has been especially difficult for classroom teachers, both because they have not been familiar with ways to conduct generalized oral proficiency testing and because they do not feel they have time to give such oral exams. Even if proficiency tests such as the *MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests* were readily available for teachers to use, they would not be suitable for assessing oral performance: no paper and pencil test could answer this assessment need. Yet the development of oral proficiency has been and continues to be a major goal of many language programs. Students and teachers, as well as potential employers of second language students, need to know what generalized competencies in oral language use can be expected at the end of a sequence of instruction.

By the end of the 1970s, it had become increasingly apparent that a widely used, nationally approved procedure for assessing students' language proficiency, especially in oral skills, was needed. It seemed that

the academic community was ready to seek some consensus on defining more clearly than ever before proficiency goals and standards for second language programs. This interest in setting standards reflected the more general concern about excellence in education that was brewing on the national level. The need for standards in the area of foreign languages and international studies was pointed out by Paul Simon (Illinois) and other congressmen, who, together with language professional organizations, urged the establishment of a special presidential commission. The work of that commission and the action subsequently taken by the second language teaching profession are discussed in the next section.

The President's Commission and the ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines

By the latter part of the 1970s, the language teaching profession began to study very carefully the issue of proficiency, especially in the oral skill. This effort was supported by the federal government through the formation in April 1978 of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. This commission resulted from three developments: (1) U.S. commitments under the 1975 Helsinki Accords, under which the United States and other signatories had agreed to "encourage the study of foreign languages and civilizations" so that the nations involved would better understand each other's cultures; (2) the concern of the State Department and National Security Council for the nation's capability in foreign area training and research; and (3) the concern of Congressman Paul Simon of Illinois, a member of the Congressional oversight commission on implementing the Helsinki Accords, that foreign language and area studies in this country were not at a level consistent with the U.S. commitment under the accords (Burn, 1980, p. 7).

The commission was charged with four tasks:

1. To recommend how public attention should be directed to the importance of foreign language and international studies
2. To assess the national need for foreign language and area-studies specialists as well as the job market for such specialists
3. To recommend the type of foreign language and international studies programs needed at various levels in the nation's educational system
4. To specify legislative changes that would be needed to carry out the recommendations of the commission (Burn, 1980)

In the report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies (*Strength through Wisdom*, 1979) it became painfully apparent that this nation was in serious trouble in terms of the second language competence of its citizenry. Statements such as "Americans' incompetence in foreign languages is nothing short of scandalous, and it

is becoming worse" (p. 12) brought national attention to the need for support of second language education programs in the nation's schools. Equally disturbing were facts reported about the ignorance of high school students in international matters. The Commission found, for example, that 40 percent of 12th graders could not locate Egypt on a map!

Among the recommendations included in the commission's report was that a "National Criteria and Assessment Program" be established to develop foreign language proficiency tests and to report on, monitor, and assess foreign language teaching in the United States. This recommendation paralleled other similar recommendations that had been made by the MLA-ACLS Language Task Force for the President's Commission in late 1978:

Recommendation 10. *Institutions and, where appropriate, state educational systems should be encouraged by the Modern Language Association to adopt* nationally recognized performance or proficiency standards, *and make such standards known widely to students and faculty.*

Recommendation 12. *The Modern Language Association and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages should secure funding for the* revision and redevelopment of tests for the measurement of proficiencies in the four language skills in all the most commonly taught and wide-use languages. *Such tests should be developed by committees consisting of both secondary school and college teachers. (Brod, 1980, cited in Liskin-Gasparro, 1984)*

At the same time that the MLA-ACLS task forces were making the above recommendations, the Educational Testing Service (ETS) was approaching the problem of proficiency testing from another perspective. As early as 1970, Protase Woodford of ETS had coined the term *Common Yardstick* to refer to a project attempting to define language proficiency levels for academic contexts using a scale parallel to the one used by federal government schools since World War II. The government scale had been developed by linguists at one of the major government language schools, the Foreign Service Institute (FSI), in order to describe the speaking abilities of candidates for foreign service positions. It made provision for eleven major ranges of proficiency, beginning with 0 (no functional ability in the language) to 5 (proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker), using "+" designations between levels. (See Illustration 1.1 for a brief description of the scale.) It is important to realize that these proficiency ranges are not equidistant from one another; that is, the scale is not linear. Rather, the ranges become farther and farther apart from one another as one moves up the scale.

In addition to the proficiency scale, FSI had developed an interview-based evaluation procedure for assigning a rating. This procedure was

also of interest to the *Common Yardstick* project. During the 1970s, ETS cooperated with other organizations, such as the English Speaking Union of Great Britain, the British Council, the Deutscher Volkshochschul Verband, representatives of the U.S. government, and business and academic groups, to develop and refine the proficiency scales and the interview procedure for academic use (see Liskin-Gasparro, 1984). The outcome of this project was an adaptation of the government scale, currently known as the ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) Scale, involving an expansion of the lower levels to allow greater latitude and precision in describing proficiency below ILR Level 2. The levels of the scale were renamed to correspond to the needs and purposes of the academic community (see Illustration 1.1).

The work begun by the *Common Yardstick* project was continued by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and ETS under a federal grant entitled "A Design for Measuring and Communicating Foreign Language Proficiency." This project involved the development of more extensive verbal descriptions of the scales in Illustration 1.1 in the form of "guidelines." Both generic and language-specific proficiency descriptions ranging from the most minimal level of competence to professional-level skills in speaking, listening, reading, writing, and culture were written. The guidelines, first published in November 1982, have recently been revised, and will continue to be revised in the years ahead to correspond to the needs of practitioners using them, as well as to our expanding knowledge about the nature of language proficiency. (The most recent set of generic guidelines are given in Appendix A.)

As mentioned earlier, one important characteristic of the proficiency scales represented in Illustration 1.1 is that they are not linear. As one goes up the scale, progressively more language skill is needed to attain the next level. It is useful to think of the proficiency levels in terms of an inverted pyramid, such as the one depicted in Illustration 1.2. One can see that relatively little progress in language skills is needed to progress from Level 0 (Novice) to Level 1 (Intermediate), but that relatively more change is needed to make the leap from Level 1 (Intermediate) to Level 2 (Advanced), and so on. As Liskin-Gasparro (1984) points out, the most difficult leap on the scale is from Level 4 to Level 5. "No matter how long one studies the language or lives in a place where it is spoken, it is most unusual to reach Level 5, i.e., to be taken for an educated native speaker" (p. 25).

It becomes relatively easy to distinguish levels of proficiency if one considers the three interrelated criteria underlying the proficiency descriptions: *context*, *function*, and *accuracy*. Illustration 1.3 presents the "Functional Trisection of Oral Proficiency Levels," a set of statements relating to the linguistic *functions* an individual is typically able to express, the *contexts* or *content areas* (topics) that can be discussed, and the degree

Illustration 1.1.
Oral Proficiency Rating Scales

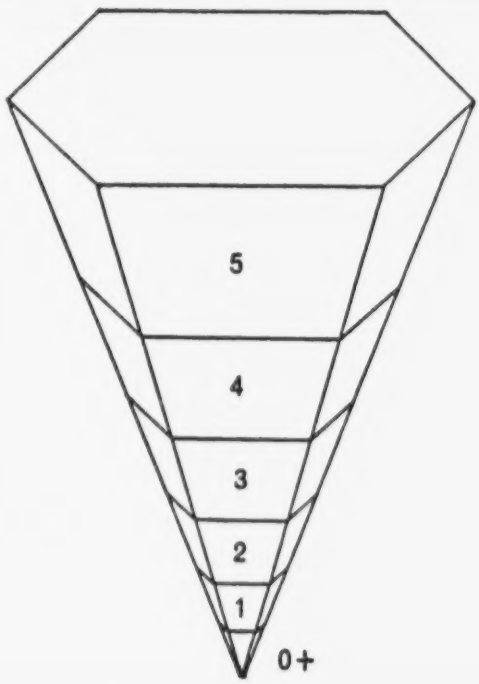
Government (FSI) Scale	Academic (ACTFL/ETS) Scale	Definition
5	Native	Able to speak like an educated native speaker
4+ 4 3+ 3	Superior	Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations
2+	Advanced Plus	Able to satisfy most work requirements and show some ability to communicate on concrete topics
2	Advanced	Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements
1+	Intermediate—High	Able to satisfy most survival needs and limited social demands
1	Intermediate—Mid	Able to satisfy some survival needs and some limited social demands
	Intermediate—Low	Able to satisfy basic survival needs and minimum courtesy requirements
0+	Novice—High	Able to satisfy immediate needs with learned utterances
0	Novice—Mid	Able to operate in only a very limited capacity
	Novice—Low	Unable to function in the spoken language
	0	No ability whatsoever in the language

Source: Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro. *ETS Oral Proficiency Testing Manual*. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1982.

of *accuracy* with which the message can be communicated for each level on the scale.

As the proficiency levels for speaking are explained in more detail below, it will become clear how the components of communicative com-

Illustration 1.2.
Inverted Pyramid of Language Proficiency



Source: Pardee Lowe. *Manual for Language School Oral Interview Workshops*. Washington, D.C.: Defense Language Institute/Language School Joint Oral Interview Transfer Project, 1982.

petence mentioned by Canale (1983) and others can be measured within the context of this trisection. The criterion *accuracy*, for example, relates not only to linguistic structures, but also to precision of vocabulary, the use of cohesive devices, the appropriate use of register and other sociolinguistic factors, and so on. In this manner, the proficiency descriptions are a direct reflection of current thinking about the nature of communicative competence and can be used to quantify to some extent the elements of the definitions given earlier.

For those unfamiliar with the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines* and the ACTFL/ETS Scale, the following shorthand characteristics of each proficiency range should prove helpful. It is important to bear in mind that these descriptions reflect data collected from oral interviews carried out over the past 40 years. That is, they are experientially, rather than hypothetically based: they describe how language learners *typically* function along a whole range of possible levels of competence rather than prescribe the way any given theorist *thinks* learners ought to function. (The actual

Oral Proficiency Level	Function (Tasks accomplished, attitudes expressed, tone conveyed)	Context (Topics, subject areas, activities, and jobs addressed)	Accuracy (Acceptability, quality, and accuracy of message conveyed)
5	Functions equivalent to an educated native speaker	All subjects	Performance equivalent to an educated native speaker
4	Able to tailor language to fit audience, counsel, persuade, negotiate, represent a point of view, and interpret for dignitaries	All topics normally pertinent to professional needs	Nearly equivalent to an educated native speaker; speech is extensive, precise, appropriate to every occasion, with only occasional errors
3	Can converse in formal and informal situations, resolve problems, situations, deal with unfamiliar topics, provide explanations, describe in detail, offer supported opinions, and hypothesize	Practical, social, professional, and abstract topics, particular interests, and special fields of competence	Errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker; only sporadic errors in basic structure
2	Able to fully participate in casual conversations, can express facts, give instructions, describe, report, and provide narration about current, past, and future activities	Concrete topics such as own background, family, interests, work, travel, and current events	Understandable to native speaker not used to dealing with foreigners; sometimes miscommunicates
1	Can create with the language, ask and answer questions, participate in short conversations	Everyday survival topics and courtesy requirements	Intelligible to native speaker used to dealing with foreigners
0	No functional ability	None	Unintelligible

Source: Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro. *ETS Oral Proficiency Testing Manual.* Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1982.

Illustration 1.3. Functional Trisection of Oral Proficiency Levels

procedure for administering the oral interview will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 8.)

Novice (ILR Level 0/0+) Individuals performing at the Novice Level of proficiency, though perhaps capable of some limited expression in the language, have no real functional ability to communicate with what they know. Typically, their speech is characterized by the use of a few memorized words or phrases, with little

or no syntactic variation beyond the scope of the prefabricated, familiar material at their disposal.

Novice-Level speakers can often give short lists of vocabulary and/or answer simple questions relating to everyday topics such as the following:

1. Names of basic objects
2. Names of family members
3. Names of colors
4. Names of articles of clothing
5. Weather expressions
6. Days of the week
7. Months of the year
8. Today's date
9. The current year
10. The current time of day

These ten topics, also known in the context of the oral interview as the "ten desperate questions," will often elicit some sample of speech when all other attempts at conversation fail. This is not to say that every Novice-Level speaker can say something about all ten topics, nor that these are the only content areas that such individuals can control. Rather, they are meant to suggest the *type* of speech one can expect to elicit at the lowest levels of oral proficiency.

At the *Novice-High (ILR 0+)* Level on the academic scale, speakers have considerably more memorized material within their control and some ability to communicate their own personal messages with that material. However, they are still unable to create with the language; that is, they are generally not able to handle conversational topics with which they are unfamiliar or to paraphrase to express ideas they haven't expressed previously. They are also unable to handle a typical "survival situation" that would be encountered in the target culture, such as finding a room at a hotel, obtaining directions, ordering a simple meal, handling transportation needs, and the like. These skills constitute the minimal or threshhold capabilities of the *Intermediate* range of proficiency.

Intermediate (ILR Level 1/1+)

Individuals in the Intermediate range of oral proficiency have the following characteristics:

1. They can *create* with the language; that is, they can express their own thoughts without relying exclusively on prefabricated or memorized responses to get their meaning across.
2. They are capable of *asking* questions as well as of answering them. Whereas Novice-Level speakers respond to questions in a "knee-jerk" fashion with one or two words, Intermediate-Level speakers answer with longer phrases or full sentences and are capable of holding up their own end of the conversation by making inquiries and offering more elaborate responses.

3. They have at least a minimal level of sociolinguistic competence in that they can handle everyday social encounters (greetings, leave takings, the use of polite formulas, and the like) with some degree of appropriateness.
4. They can handle a simple "survival situation" that one might expect to encounter while traveling or residing for a short time in the target culture. Finding lodging, food, transportation, medical assistance, obtaining directions, and the like present few problems for an Intermediate-Level speaker.
5. Their discourse is characterized by simple sentences or phrases, normally limited to present time, with little use of cohesive devices or embedded sentence structure. Intermediate-Level speech is usually quite inaccurate, even in basic structures, and vocabulary is quite limited. However, Intermediate-Level speakers are intelligible to native speakers who are *used to dealing with foreigners.*

At the *Intermediate-High (ILR 1+)* Level, speakers begin to take on some of the characteristics of the *Advanced* range of proficiency. However, they are unable to sustain performance at this higher level during the course of the interview and therefore do not meet the minimal threshhold characteristics for the Advanced Level.

Advanced (ILR Level 2/2+)

Speakers in the advanced range are capable of sustained conversation and can be characterized as follows:

1. They can narrate and describe in past, present, and future time. In addition, their narrations and descriptions are sustained in longer discourse segments; that is, Advanced-Level speakers generally speak in paragraphs rather than in short phrases or sentences.
2. They can talk about a wide range of concrete topics, including autobiographical details, daily routines at home, school, or at the workplace, current events, and the like. They can participate fully in casual conversations, expressing facts, giving instructions, describing places, people, and things, reporting on events, and providing narration about past, present, and future activities.
3. They can "live off of the economy" of the target culture and can handle routine work requirements with facility. Faced with a "survival situation" in which a complication has arisen (such as a missed plane, an unsatisfactory hotel room, a flat tire, or similar situation in which one must explain one's way out of trouble), Advanced-Level speakers can get their message across successfully.
4. They show a greater degree of sociolinguistic competence in their speech, including some sensitivity to register and to the appropriateness of certain expressions in a given context.

5. Their strategic competence is improved. Some ability to paraphrase and to cope in more complicated situations is one of the hallmarks of speakers in this proficiency range.
6. Their discourse competence is also improved as they continue to use longer and more complex sentence structure to express their meaning. There is growing evidence of the ability to use cohesive devices to unify discourse.
7. Although they still make errors in some basic structures, their control of the grammatical system is much improved over that of Intermediate-Level speakers. They still display patterns of errors, however, and their linguistic system tends to break down when they are asked to perform functions that are controlled at the next highest level of proficiency. Nonetheless, Advanced-Level speakers are comprehensible to native speakers who are *not used to dealing with foreigners.*

At the *Advanced-Plus* Level, speakers have many of the characteristics of the *Superior* range, although they cannot sustain performance at that level.

Superior (ILR Levels 3, 3+, 4, 4+, 5)

The ACTFL/ETS scale collapses under one proficiency range all of the government ranges above Level 3. The reason for this will soon become clear. Basically, *Superior-Level* speakers can be characterized as follows:

1. They have, at the very minimum, a "professional" level of proficiency; that is, they can handle unknown topics and situations, give supported opinions, hypothesize, provide complicated explanations, describe in detail with a great deal of precision, and can tackle virtually any practical, social, professional, or abstract topic that they can discuss in their native language.
2. Although they may make random errors in grammar, especially in the more complicated structures of the language, speakers at the Superior Level rarely make errors that would interfere with comprehension or disturb the native speaker.
3. At the lower end of the Superior range (ILR Level 3), speakers may lack some precision in vocabulary, but they are rarely at a loss to express their meaning through paraphrase or circumlocution. Strategic competence is high at this level, as is discourse competence. Though the Level 3 speaker may be unfamiliar with some idiomatic expressions and unable to easily shift registers, sociolinguistic competence is continuously developing. Only at Levels 4 and 5, however, would speakers be able to systematically tailor their language to any audience in a totally appropriate fashion. At these higher levels, vocabulary also becomes much more precise, and speakers

can choose from a wide range of synonyms in much the same manner as they do in their native language.

As stated previously, the brief descriptions of proficiency levels given here are summary statements, or shorthand characteristics, used to familiarize practitioners with the concepts relating to proficiency testing. Note that the level definitions do *not* specify particular grammatical structures or lexical items that need to be controlled, but outline instead more generalized performance criteria that must be met at each level of proficiency. Performance within the levels of proficiency is not completely uniform; on the contrary, there is often quite a wide variation in the *details* of performance, especially in the intermediate and advanced ranges. The descriptions provided by the *ACTFL Guidelines* (see Appendix A) provide more complete information about the nature of the performance that might be expected within proficiency ranges. For the most complete description and discussion of oral proficiency testing, see Liskin-Gasparro (1982).

Some Research Findings about Oral Proficiency

What level of proficiency can students expect to reach at the end of a given course of study? What is the average proficiency level of classroom teachers in high school and college programs? How long does it take to reach the Superior Level of proficiency in a given language? These and other questions have been addressed in recent years through the use of oral proficiency interviews and data collected from both government and academic sources.

In a study reported by Carroll (1967), the foreign language proficiency of undergraduate majors in French, Spanish, German, and Russian was assessed using the oral interview procedure as one measure in a battery of tests. The tests, administered in the second semester of their senior year, revealed that the typical rating obtained was 2 or 2+. It is important to bear in mind that the students tested were foreign language *majors* at the end of their college program who had concentrated on both language and literature study for at least four years, who may have had additional coursework in high school, and who may have spent some time abroad. Yet very few of these students were able to reach Level 3 (Superior) proficiency in oral skills. A similar study involving college professors who had resided abroad or had studied in the target culture as Fullbright scholars revealed that the typical rating obtained after immersion in the target language community was Level 3 or 3+.

In a more informal study undertaken recently by ETS, approximately 30 high school students in Spanish were tested using the oral interview. Students ranged from those with very little Spanish to those who had studied for four years. Although the teachers felt that there were significant differences in the oral abilities of these students, most were rated

in the 0 to 0+ (Novice) range (Liskin-Gasparro, 1982). These results, coupled with those reported in the Carroll study, should give us a better perspective on what our expectations might be for the majority of students in our programs, given the limited time available for language study.

Illustration 1.4 reveals some interesting facts about the amount of *time* it takes for students to reach the Superior range of proficiency in various languages. The data were collected and analyzed by the School of Language Studies of the Foreign Service Institute. The chart summarizes FSI experience with students taught in its own classes, which are typically quite small and meet a maximum of 30 hours per week. Note that for American students, the easiest languages include French, Italian, and Spanish, the next group in difficulty includes German, and the third most difficult includes Russian and Hebrew. Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean are the most difficult languages to master of the 44 languages listed (Liskin-Gasparro, 1982).

According to the data in Illustration 1.4, it takes 720 hours of instruction under ideal conditions to enable a student with a superior aptitude for languages to reach Level 3 in oral skills in French or Spanish. The attainment of a similar level in German or one of the less commonly taught languages would take even longer. This is further evidence that we must amend our expectations for students in high school and college programs to conform with the facts. Even with 72 hours of contact time per semester, college students would need *at least* ten semesters of language instruction to reach this goal.

One other study that sheds light on the issue of expectations for students in academic programs and the relative impact of various components of communicative competence on proficiency ratings was reported by Higgs and Clifford (1982). In 1978, the Research Committee of the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) began investigating the relative contribution of various components or subskills to global language proficiency. The hypothesis under consideration was that the relative contribution of factors such as vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, fluency, and sociolinguistic competence was *not* constant across proficiency ranges. For example, it was felt that vocabulary would be more important than grammatical accuracy for successful performance at Level 1 (Intermediate); at Level 2 (Advanced), the role of grammar would become more important; at Level 5, all five factors, or subskills, would contribute equally.

At the time that the Relative Contribution Model was hypothesized (see Illustration 1.5), no data base containing both global proficiency ratings and subskill scores for the factors existed. In order to verify or refute the hypothesis, some 50 foreign language teachers representing seventeen of the languages taught at the CIA Language School were asked to judge the relative importance of each of the model's components for each proficiency level. The results of their collective judgments are represented in

Illustration 1.4. Expected Levels of Speaking Proficiency in Languages Taught at the Foreign Service Institute

Group I: Afrikaans, Danish, Dutch, French, Haitian Creole, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, Swahili, Swedish.

Length of Training	Aptitude for Language Learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
8 weeks (240 hours)	1	1/1 +	1 +
16 weeks (480 hours)	1 +	2	2 +
24 weeks (720 hours)	2	2 +	3

Group II: Bulgarian, Dari, Farsi, German, Greek, Hindi, Indonesian, Malay, Urdu

Length of Training	Aptitude for Language Learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks (480 hours)	1	1/2 +	1 + /2
24 weeks (720 hours)	1 +	2	2 + /3
44 weeks (1320 hours)	2/2 +	2 + /3	3/3 +

Group III: Amharic, Bengali, Burmese, Czech, Finnish, Hebrew, Hungarian, Khmer, Lao, Nepali, Pilipino, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Sinhala, Thai, Tamil, Turkish, Vietnamese

Length of Training	Aptitude for Language Learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks (480 hours)	0 +	1	1/1 +
24 weeks (720 hours)	1 +	2	2/2 +
44 weeks (1320 hours)	2	2 +	3

Group IV: Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean

Length of Training	Aptitude for Language Learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks (480 hours)	0 +	1	1
24 weeks (720 hours)	1	1 +	1 +
44 weeks (1320 hours)	1 +	2	2 +
80–92 weeks (2400–2760 hours)	2 +	3	3 +

Source: Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro. *ETS Oral Proficiency Testing Manual*. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1982.

the version of the model given in Illustrations 1.6. As hypothesized, vocabulary is the most important component for success at Level I, with pronunciation, grammar, fluency, and sociolinguistic appropriateness contributing relatively less to the global rating. As the proficiency level increases, the relative contribution of each factor changes. (No factor ever decreases in importance, since all subskills constantly improve as the proficiency level increases. However, the *relative* weight of a given subskill in making a global judgment may decrease, as seen in the model.)

According to Higgs and Clifford, the implications of this hypothesized model of oral proficiency for curriculum design are clear:

> *If the goal of the curriculum is to produce Level 3 speakers of a language, then the concentration on language subskills in the curriculum should be representative of their relative importance in performing Level 3 tasks. Grammar skills*

Illustration 1.4.
Expected Levels of Speaking Proficiency in Languages Taught at the Foreign Service Institute

Group I: Afrikaans, Danish, Dutch, French, Haitian Creole, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, Swahili, Swedish.

Length of Training	Aptitude for Language Learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
8 weeks (240 hours)	1	1/1+	1+
16 weeks (480 hours)	1+	2	2+
24 weeks (720 hours)	2	2+	3

Group II: Bulgarian, Dari, Farsi, German, Greek, Hindi, Indonesian, Malay, Urdu

Length of Training	Aptitude for Language Learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks (480 hours)	1	1/2+	1+/2
24 weeks (720 hours)	1+	2	2+/3
44 weeks (1320 hours)	2/2+	2+/3	3/3+

Group III: Amharic, Bengali, Burmese, Czech, Finnish, Hebrew, Hungarian, Khmer, Lao, Nepali, Pilipino, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Sinhala, Thai, Tamil, Turkish, Vietnamese

Length of Training	Aptitude for Language Learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks (480 hours)	0+	1	1/1+
24 weeks (720 hours)	1+	2	2/2+
44 weeks (1320 hours)	2	2+	3

Group IV: Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean

Length of Training	Aptitude for Language Learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks (480 hours)	0+	1	1
24 weeks (720 hours)	1	1+	1+
44 weeks (1320 hours)	1+	2	2+
80–92 weeks (2400–2760 hours)	2+	3	3+

Source: Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro. *ETS Oral Proficiency Testing Manual.* Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1982.

would be an important part of the curriculum. If the goal is to produce students with Level I survival skills, then the optimum curriculum mix would be entirely different, with a primary emphasis on the teaching and practice of vocabulary. (p. 73)

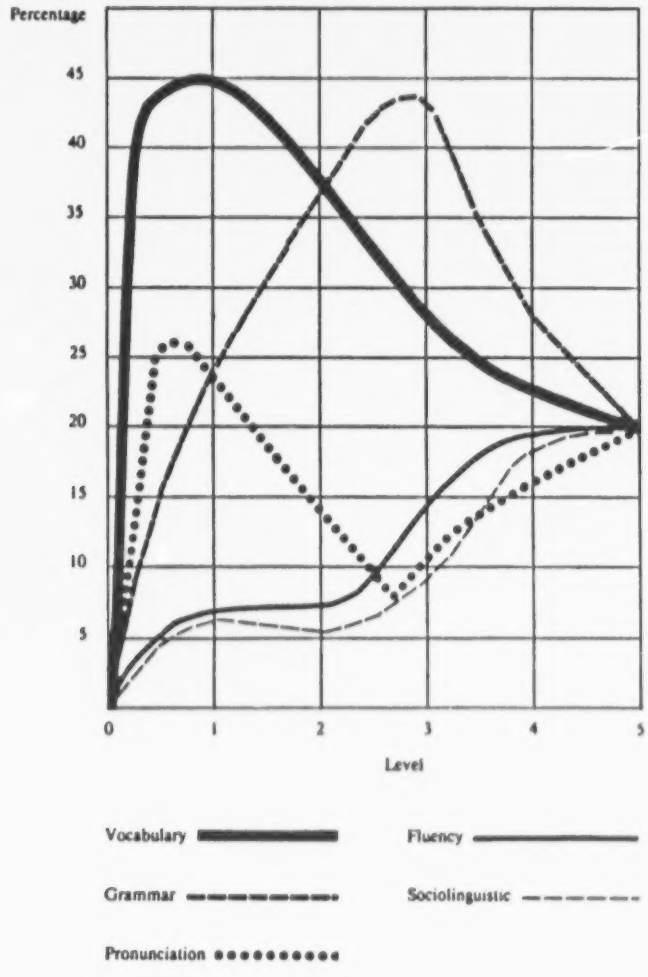
These considerations will be kept in mind when formulating our hypotheses about the nature of proficiency-oriented instruction. But before those hypotheses are stated, the nature of second language acquisition, especially in adults and adolescents, must be considered. Some of the major theoretical positions on this issue, dating from the earlier part of this century to the present, are summarized briefly in the next section.

How Do Adults Become Proficient In a Second Language?

Theories of language acquisition in the twentieth century have been greatly influenced by trends in psychology. Even before the advent of experimental psychology, language educators had turned to psychologists for insights into the language-acquisition process. The *grammar-translation* method, popular in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (see Chapter 2) was congruent with the thinking underlying faculty psychology, a mental-discipline theory that proclaimed that the mind was a muscle needing vigorous exercise. Psychologists posited three major faculties: thinking, feeling, and willing. Each of the faculties was then subdivided into sub-faculties, such as memory, imagination, and the like. In order to improve the powers of the mind, one needed to exercise these faculties regularly through problem-solving activities and other forms of mental discipline. The learning of Latin and Greek had been justified as an intellectually stimulating, disciplined activity in which the mind could be trained through the logical analysis of language. This traditional approach to language learning, coupled with the principles of faculty psychology, exerted a strong influence over language instruction in modern languages. Thus, the grammar-translation method involved a great deal of memorization of intricate rules and paradigms, copious translation exercises whose purpose was to encourage application of the rules, and the reading and translation of literary texts. If the mind was indeed a muscle, this method would surely strengthen it, as anyone who has gone through a strict grammar-translation approach to language learning can attest.

In the early twentieth century, three schools of psychology dominated thinking about the way the human mind functioned, replacing in popularity the faculty psychologists' doctrine of mental powers. Of the three—Gestalt psychology, psychoanalysis, and behaviorism—it was the latter that had the most profound influence on approaches to learning in the first half of the century. Since ancient times philosophers had believed that human learning and animal learning were parallel, if not contiguous.

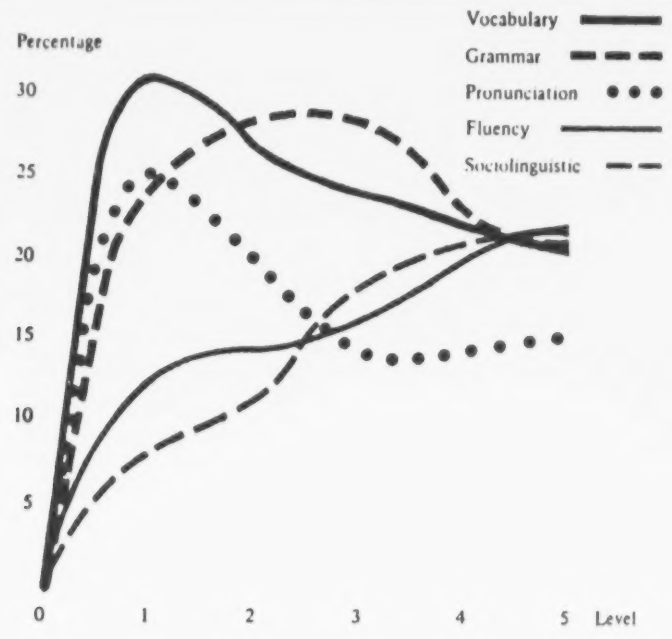
Illustration 1.5.
Hypothesized Relative Contribution Model



Source: Theodore V. Higgs. "The Introduction: Language Teaching and the Quest for the Holy Grail." In Theodore V. Higgs, ed., *Teaching for Proficiency: the Organizing Principle.* ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, vol. 15. Lincolnwood: Ill.: National Textbook, 1984.

This belief, scoffed at by many, became more credible upon publication in 1859 of Darwin's *Origin of the Species*. Darwin's theory implied that there *was* a continuity between the human mind and the animal mind

Illulstration 1.6.
Actual Relative Contribution Model (All Languages)



Source: Theodore V. Higgs and Ray Clifford. "The Push Toward Communication." In Theodore V. Higgs, ed., *Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher*. ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, vol. 13. Lincolnwood, Ill.: National Textbook, 1982.

from which it had evolved. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, a growing interest in animal behavior led to the growth of experimental psychology and the school of behaviorism. Experimentalists such as John B. Watson (1878–1958) reacted strongly against the tradition of the times that the province of psychology was the *introspective study* of conscious experience. He contended that in order to make psychology an objective science, the data collected must be open to observation by anyone interested in seeing it. This "scientific" approach to psychology caught on, particularly in the 1920s, and soon the psychologist's couch was replaced with laboratory tables on which rested intricate mazes, boxes, and cages. Within the walls of these experimental contraptions, rats, pigeons, and other small animals were learning through "conditioning" to turn to the left or right, peck at disks, and press bars to obtain food. The S-R (stimulus-response) school of psychology grew out of these experiments,

and it was this newest form of behaviorism that prepared the way for audiolingual methodology after World War II.

In S-R psychology, all behavior is viewed as a response to stimuli, whether the behavior is overt (explicit) or covert (implicit). Behavior happens in causal, associative chains; in fact, *all* learning is really associative learning, or *habit formation*, brought about by the repeated association of a stimulus with a response. This process of habit formation, or *conditioning*, was of three basic types: (1) classical conditioning, (2) operant conditioning, and (3) multiple-response learning.

In *classical conditioning* (best known through experiments done by Pavlov), an association between a conditioned stimulus and and a response was repeatedly strengthened through the presentation of that stimulus with another, unconditioned one. In Pavlov's experiments with dogs, the unconditioned stimulus was meat powder and the response was salivation. When Pavlov repeatedly presented the meat powder with the simultaneous ringing of a bell, the dog learned to salivate to the sound of the bell (the conditioned stimulus), even in the absence of the meat.

In *operant conditioning* (also known as *instrumental conditioning*), the response to a stimulus is learned although it is not normally a natural response to that stimulus. A rat pressing a bar in its cage may at first do so randomly. But if the rat discovers that pressing the bar releases a food pellet, it learns to push the bar again for the same reward. The *operant* (the random bar-pushing behavior) becomes conditioned (purposeful behavior) because it produces an effect that is rewarding.

In multiple-response learning, the animal learns a whole chain of behaviors and performs them in succession, always in the same order. A rat that runs a maze learns a fixed series of turns through conditioning, rewarded by a food pellet or two for his trouble.

What has all of this to do with language learning? As Chastain (1976) points out, behaviorism took a strong foothold in the thinking of psychologists by the middle of the century, influencing in turn the views of the education community:

Soon behaviorists concluded that all learning consisted of some form of conditioning. The organism was conditioned to respond in a specific way to a selected stimulus. Complex activities were nothing more than a complex collection of conditioned responses. Since all learning is conditioned and since human learning is similar to learning in animals, the next step was to conclude that human learning could be, and is, conditioned in the same way. The belief was that humans are reinforced by their environment in much the same way as the rat in a maze. (p. 104)

B.F. Skinner (1957), perhaps the best known proponent of S-R psychology, used the term *operant conditioning* to describe verbal learning. In

his view, language is a sophisticated response system that humans acquire through automatic conditioning processes. Some patterns of language are reinforced (rewarded) and others are not. Only those patterns reinforced by the community of language users will persist. In Skinnerian psychology, the human being is likened to a machine with multiple working parts. The mind is a *tabula rasa* onto which are stamped associations between various stimuli in the environment and responses chosen from outside the organism for reinforcement. This external, mechanistic view was echoed by Bloomfield in his *Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages*:

The command of a language is not a matter of knowledge: the speakers are quite unable to describe the habits which make up their language. The command of a language is a matter of practice. . . . Language learning is overlearning: anything else is of no use. (Bloomfield, 1942, p. 12, cited in Chastain, 1976, p. 133)

Skinner's theory, in conjunction with the prevailing school of linguistic theory—structural, or descriptive, linguistics—reached a peak from World War I until shortly after World War II. It was on these theoretical bases that the foundations of audiolingual methodology were laid. This approach to language teaching, along with a discussion of the linguistic theory underlying it, is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2.

From Behaviorism to Cognitive Psychology

It was not until the publication of Chomsky's (1959) highly critical review of Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* (1957) that the behaviorist viewpoint of language acquisition was seriously questioned. Chomsky's main point was that S-R psychology could not hope to account for linguistic behavior, especially given the creativity involved in generating novel utterances, a feat performed virtually every time a native speaker opened his mouth. The creative aspects of language behavior implied that the human mind was involved in deep processing of meaning and was not simply mechanically producing memorized strings of learned responses to vaguely defined environmental stimuli.

At this same time, a new school of psychology was gaining in popularity, especially among educational psychologists. Rejecting the antimentalistic, mechanistic view of learning favored by the behaviorists, *cognitive psychology* maintained that meaning, understanding, and knowing are significant data in scientific inquiries into the nature of the human mind. In the cognitive view, the mind is seen as an *active agent* in the thinking-learning process. Cognitive psychologists tried to discover the psychological principles underlying *organization* and *cognitive functioning*.

Cognitive theory was mentalistic and dynamic: knowledge is acquired by the organism rather than implanted by some outside agent, and conscious learning requires active mental participation by the learner. In other words, learning is controlled by the individual, not by the surrounding environment.

One of the proponents of cognitive psychology as it applies to education is David Ausubel. In his preliminary remarks in the 1968 edition of *Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View*, he soundly denounces behavioristic approaches to human learning:

Some kinds of learning . . . for example, animal learning, conditioning, instrumental learning, and simple discrimination learning, are considered irrelevant for most learning tasks in school, despite the fact that wildly extrapolated findings in these areas quite commonly pad the learning chapters of many educational psychology textbooks. (p. viii)

For Ausubel, only two types of learning are relevant to educational contexts: rote learning and meaningful learning. *Rote learning* is *arbitrary* and *verbatim*. For example, learning a list of nonsense syllables in paired association requires memorization of a set of arbitrary connections that have no basis in reality. *Meaningful learning*, on the other hand, is *nonarbitrary* and *nonverbatim*. Learning of this type depends on three factors:

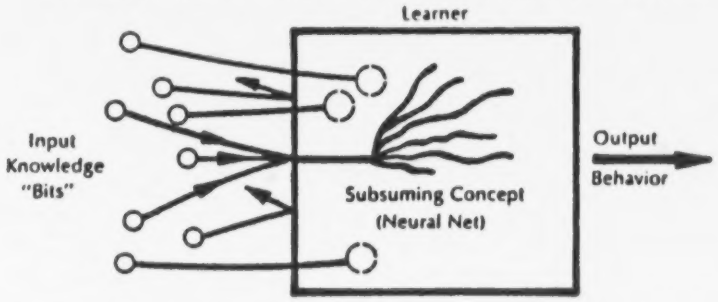
1. The quantity, clarity, and *organization* of the learner's present knowledge (consisting of facts, concepts, theories, and raw perceptual data); this knowledge constitutes the learner's *cognitive structure*
2. The extent to which the new information to be learned is *relatable* to the individual's existing cognitive structure
3. The learner's *intention to learn*, or his willingness to approach the learning task with the intention of relating the new material meaningfully to what he already has in his cognitive structure

In Ausubel's view, learning *must* be meaningful to be effective and permanent. That is, it must involve *active* mental processes and be relatable to existing knowledge the learner already possesses. The mind, when involved in meaningful learning, will organize the new material into meaningful chunks and relate them to existing cognitive structure in a such a way that they will become "attached." Illustration 1.7 depicts this process graphically and emphasizes the difference between rote learning, in which no organization of new material is provided, and meaningful learning, in which material that is potentially meaningful is presented in organized chunks. Ausubel suggests that educators provide *advance organizers* for new material whenever possible to facilitate the learning process.

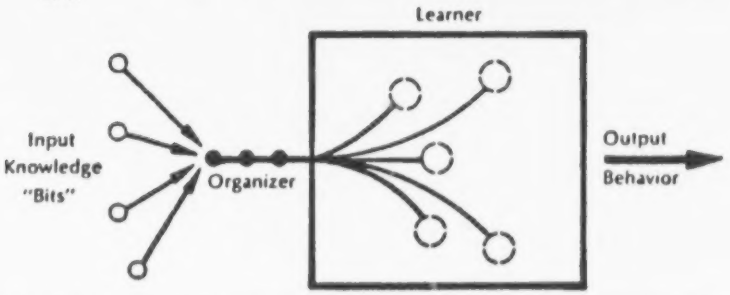
In summary, the cognitive psychologist's view of learning implies the following definition of the process: Learning is the perception, acquisition,

Illustration 1.7. Relating New Knowledge to Existing Cognitive Structure

A. Knowledge that can be associated with material already in the learner's cognitive structure is absorbed and "subsumed" to strengthen the existing concept (meaningful learning). Knowledge that is not relatable to the learner's cognitive structure is either not accepted or learned by rote.



B. When new knowledge is appropriately sequenced and organized to facilitate meaningful learning, ideas are subsumed more readily. Strategies or teaching devices that provide such sequence are called *advance organizers.*



Source: Adapted from Novak, J. D. "Relevant Research on Audio-Tutorial Methods." *School Science and Mathematics,* vol 70 (1970), p. 778 (cited in Chastain, 1976).

organization, and storage of knowledge in such a way that it becomes an active part of the individual's cognitive structure. Learning, then, is not a set of conditioned reponses, but *rule-governed behavior.*

The concept of language as rule-governed behavior was supported by the transformational-generative school of linguistic theory, based on the principles advanced by Chomsky. The congruence of the T-G approach to linguistic behavior and the cognitive psychologists' approach to human learning in general led to the demise of audiolingual methodology. The implications of this new theoretical framework for language teaching are discussed in detail in Chapter 2.

2

Methodology in Transition

Once, in the throes of the audiolingual revolution, we "knew" the truth. Today, I am working with only a set of working hypotheses for myself as a foreign language teacher. (Strasheim, 1976, p. 42)

For many years, it seemed that the second language teaching profession was engaged in a series of "revolutions," most of which had their origins in an attempt to reach some consensus about the best way—"the one true way"—to teach a foreign language. Yet, despite a few short-lived rallies around a common flag, the history of language teaching has been marked more often by controversy than by consensus.

Traditionally, language educators, like linguists, have grouped themselves into two fairly distinct batallions—the *rationalists* and the *empiricists*—engaging in a never ending controversy "whose roots can be traced to the beginnings of modern thought" (Diller, 1978, p. vii). The basic difference has been one of philosophy. The *rationalist/process approach* asserts that language learning is primarily the result of critical thinking and arises from a desire to communicate. The first task for the student is the identification of form as *meaningful*, a task for which problem-solving skills and strategies are needed. Approaches to language teaching such as cognitive-code methods, communicative language teaching, functional/notional approaches, Total Physical Response, and the Natural Approach fall into the rationalist camp.

The *empiricist/skills* approach, on the other hand, assumes that language learning is the result of *behavior* and largely *conditioned responses*. The first task for the student in such approaches is the *reproduction of*

correct forms, a task for which rote drilling is considered an essential strategy. Audiolingual and structural approaches typically fall into the empiricist camp.

Throughout the decades following World War II, theorists and practitioners in both camps devoted reams of paper and hours of conference time to attempting to convince one another that they were right about the way languages ought to be taught. By the 1970s many practitioners, disillusioned by the failure of the various "revolutionary" methods to deliver what they had promised, left the ranks of the absolutists to adopt an *eclectic approach*, which, for some, became the new "one true way." And with eclecticism came a new kind of diversity within the profession, at least on the issue of methodology.

It is not surprising, then, that in the 1980s, many language educators still feel the need to reach some sort of consensus about language teaching. As indicated in Chapter 1, the effort to establish uniform goals and standards in the aftermath of the President's Commission is one manifestation of this need. But for the first time in our professional history, we may be realizing that the controversy has been raging on the wrong battlefield. Instead of searching for one definitive approach to language teaching—a search that has consistently ended in frustration and a sense of failure—we have begun looking for some *organizing principle* by which our various methods, approaches, materials, and curricula might begin to make collective sense. This organizing principle must go beneath and beyond any one approach and relate in some clear way to "those elements of soundness and truth that are to be found in any method that has survived long enough to have received a name" (Stevick, 1976, p. 103).

In Chapter 1, a rationale was established for choosing the concept of proficiency as this organizing principle. By agreeing on what it means to *know* a language at various stages of competence and by describing what a person can typically *do* with the language at each of these stages, we can begin to find a way to measure outcomes against a common metric and to predict accurately the degree of success with which an individual can handle a variety of needs in a whole range of situations. The descriptive power that we can obtain from this common metric can help us compare and contrast more intelligently the effects of exisiting methods and materials on student progress. It can also help us to develop revised versions of approaches we personally favor, compensating for any areas of weakness in them that we might identify. Such a common organizer can also allow us to make more realistic promises to language learners about the kinds of competence they can expect to develop within a given sequence of instruction, which is something we have never really been able to do before with any degree of precision.

Because this chapter is devoted to the issue of methodology, the hypotheses presented in Chapter 1 will be examined in more detail in terms of their relationship to language teaching. Then we can try to extract

some key elements from those hypotheses that can serve as evaluative criteria by which methods and approaches can be compared. Finally, we can draw some conclusions about the way methodologies might evolve in the future.

Methodology and Proficiency

Definitions

Before reviewing the hypotheses in Chapter 1 and discussing the way they relate to methodology, it would be useful to try to clarify first the concept of *methodology* itself. Swaffer, Arens, and Morgan (1982) conceive of methodology as a "task hierarchy." They maintain that the differences among major methodologies are to be found in the *priorities* assigned to various tasks rather than to the collection of tasks themselves.

> *All major methodologies, whether skill or process-oriented, aspire to the same result: a student who can read, write, speak, understand, translate, and recognize applications of the grammar of the foreign language. Methodological labels assigned to teaching activities, are, in themselves, not informative, because they refer to a pool of classroom practices [that] are universally used. (p. 31)*

Therefore, it is not *what* activities are used so much as *when* and *how* they are used that distinguishes methods from one another. According to Swaffer and her colleagues, definitions of methods or approaches need to involve a description of (1) the hierarchy, or value structure, of activities, and (2) the position of such activities in the learning sequence.

Stevick (1976) also maintains that methods are best differentiated from one another in terms of factors such as "the place of memorization, or the role of visual aids, or the importance of controlling and sequencing structure and vocabulary, or how the teacher should respond when a student makes a mistake, or the number of times a student should hear a correct model, or whether to give the explanation before or after practice, or not at all, and so forth" (p. 105). The factors that he mentions go beyond the selection of learning tasks to include philosophical and theoretical principles about ways of proceeding. But whether we adopt these points of view or some other, it makes sense to differentiate methods in terms of priorities rather than make binary oppositions between and among them. In assessing the relative value of various factors in any teaching approach, we can begin to assess the degree to which that approach corresponds to the concept of proficiency.

The terms *method* and *approach* have been used thus far somewhat interchangeably. These terms, however, are not quite synonymous.

Westphal (1979) defines the terms *syllabus, approach, strategy,* and *method* as follows:

> *The* syllabus *refers to the subject matter content of a given course or series of courses and the order in which it is presented; the* approach *is, ideally, the theoretical basis or bases which determine the ways in which the syllabus is treated; a* strategy *or technique is an individual instructional activity as it occurs in the classroom. (p. 120)*

She goes on to explain that a *method* consists of combinations of these three factors, although some combinations are more congruent with course goals than others. For example, it would be rather difficult to expect students to become proficient enough in speaking to function easily in a foreign setting if their teacher used a literary syllabus, a grammar-translation approach, and strategies for learning activities based primarily on translation. However, Westphal believes that "it is quite possible to meet highly 'academic' objectives using a communicative approach to the grammatical syllabus and incorporating many humanistic strategies" (p. 120). The former combination of factors is not congruent with the goal of functional proficiency, at least not in beginning and intermediate sequences of instruction. The latter combination seems more eclectic, in that the instructor "borrows" from communicative approaches the basic theoretical and philosophical perspectives, uses a grammatical syllabus (instead of a functional one, which some communicative approaches would suggest), and treats the subject matter using humanistic techniques that have been suggested in yet another type of approach. These three factors, coupled with the actual text and course materials selected and the teacher's own individual style, could be said to constitute a method.

Again, the term *method,* as redefined here, implies a *hierarchy of priorities* set by the instructor or the program planners rather than a "prepackaged" set of procedures to which everyone is expected to slavishly subscribe. This latter conceptualization of methodology went out with the last revolution, when audiolingualism in its purest form was abandoned for more eclectic approaches. As Strasheim pointed out in 1976, "We will have to learn to deal with 'working hypotheses' rather than 'one-true-ways,' for we are moving out of the period governed by absolutes" (p. 45). The working hypotheses presented in Chapter 1 will now be explored in more detail.

Methodology and Proficiency: Five Working Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. Opportunities must be provided for students to practice using language in a range of contexts likely to be encountered in the target culture.

A proficiency-oriented method will give students, from the beginning of instruction, ample opportunities to (1) learn language *in context* and (2) apply their knowledge to *coping with real-life situations*. (See Chapters 3 through 6 for a thorough discussion.) Some of the contexts likely to be included at the Novice and Intermediate Levels are basic travel and survival needs (food, clothing, hotel accommodations, transportation, and the like), handling daily social encounters appropriately, and coping with school- or work-related situations. Students should also be taught to handle simple question-and-answer situations and discuss or write about concrete topics such as their own background, family, and interests. Additional content areas that might be addressed in Novice and Intermediate stages of proficiency, as well as some areas to be treated at Advanced Levels, are provided in Illustration 2.1.

This first hypothesis has several corollaries that relate to designing and choosing a proficiency-oriented methodology.

Corollary 1. Students should be encouraged to express their own meaning as early as possible after productive skills have been introduced in the course of instruction.

Therefore, methods that emphasize memorization or that severely limit personal expression in the early stages of instruction are not as easily adaptable to proficiency goals as those that encourage more creative language use. Only at the Novice Level do learners work almost exclusively with memorized material. To reach the Intermediate range of proficiency (Illustration 2.1, ILR Levels 1 and 1+), learners need to be able to create with the language.

Corollary 2. A proficiency-oriented methodology promotes active communicative interaction among students.

The use of small-group and paired communicative activities that allow students to practice language in context for some simulated or real communicative purpose should lead more readily to the development of oral proficiency than do methods that are primarily teacher-centered or that focus mainly on language forms and convergent answers. Communicative practice need not be totally unstructured; in fact, in the early levels of instruction, it is probably best that such activities be quite carefully structured and monitored to encourage the development of linguistic accuracy (see Hypothesis 3, below, as well as Chapters 5 and 7). Communicative practice should involve exchanges of information in situations where some *information gap* exists, rather than involve totally predictable (and therefore noncommunicative) exchanges among students. Some sample activities of this type are presented in Chapters 4, 5 and 6.

Illustration 2.1.
Context/Content

4	All nontechnical situations Any conversation within the range of personal or professional experiences All topics normally pertinent to professional needs and social of a general nature	
3	Expression and defense of opinions about current events and similar topics Most formal and informal conversations Practical, social, professional, and *abstract* topics Particular interests and special fields of competence	
2	Recreational activities Limited work requirements Most social situations including introductions Concrete topics such as own background, family, interests, work, travel, and current events	
1	Simple question-and-answer situations Familiar topics within scope of very limited language experience Routine travel needs Minimum courtesy requirements Everyday survival topics	
0+	Basic objects Colors Clothing Family members Weather	Weekdays Months Day's date Time
0	Some of the 0+ subject areas (above)	

Source: Pardee Lowe, Jr. *Manual for Language School Oral Interview Workshops.* Washington, D.C.: Defense Language Institute/Language School Joint Oral Interview Transfer Project, 1982.

Corollary 3. Creative language practice (as opposed to exclusively manipulative or convergent practice) must be encouraged in the proficiency-oriented classroom.

Students who hope to advance in their skills beyond the Novice range must learn to create with the language. They must be encouraged to paraphrase, think divergently (i.e., think of many possible answers), and let their imagination and creative ability function as fully as possible within

the limits of their level of linguistic competence. Methods that help students create in the new language by including well-conceived, divergent-production and imaginative tasks should build the flexibility, fluency, and strategic competence needed to achieve higher levels of proficiency while at the same time encouraging the development of linguistic accuracy that is so important at those higher levels.

Corollary 4. **A proficiency-oriented methodology emphasizes the use of authentic language in instructional materials wherever and whenever possible.**

The contexts for language practice should be devised, as much as possible, from culturally authentic sources. The use of real or simulated travel documents, hotel registration forms, biographical data sheets, train and plane schedules, authentic restaurant menus, labels, signs, newspapers, and magazines will acquaint the students more directly with real language than will any set of contrived classroom materials used alone. Videotapes of authentic or simulated exchanges between native speakers, radio and television broadcasts, films, songs, and the like have long been advocated by foreign language educators as stimulating pedagogical aids. The proficiency-oriented classroom will incorporate such material frequently and effectively into instruction at all levels.

Just how to make the most effective use of authentic language materials in beginning classes remains somewhat unclear. Krashen (1982) maintains that people acquire language that is directed at their current level of competence, but which includes some structures that are somewhat beyond that level as well. He asserts that language learners/acquirers will understand structures that are beyond them from contextual cues in the message or from extralinguistic cues.

If Krashen's input hypothesis is true, then we might obtain the best results by using simplified versions of authentic materials with Novice- and Intermediate-Level students and moving gradually toward incorporating more complete, unedited language samples with Advanced-Level learners. We might also consider providing enough extralinguistic cues to render unedited authentic materials comprehensible to Novice- or Intermediate-Level students. Whether material is edited or not, it is important to choose input that is appropriate in form and content to students' current level of proficiency. In addition, the task that students are asked to do with authentic material must be geared to their proficiency level. More will be said about the choice of texts and tasks in Chapter 4.

The use of authentic texts does not imply that we should abandon the use of materials created for instructional purposes. Rather, a blend of the two seems more appropriate. Krashen suggests that "we can teach vocabulary, situational routines, grammar, whatever we like, and as long

as we fill it with acquisition opportunities, as long as we keep providing comprehensible input, we are contributing to natural language acquisition" (p.30). Another factor to consider is that students' proficiency levels in listening and reading may be well in advance of their proficiency level in speaking and writing. Students who could not handle certain materials well in the productive skills may be quite capable of comprehending them.

It is also important to remember that natural language includes the comprehensible input provided by teachers in everyday exchanges in the instructional setting that are communicative in nature, from giving directions to recounting personal anecdotes in the target language. The proficiency-oriented classroom is one in which such natural acquisition opportunities are exploited as fully as possible.

Hypothesis 2. Opportunities should be provided for students to practice carrying out a range of functions (task universals) likely to be necessary in dealing with others in the target culture.

Traditional classroom instructional settings tend to limit the role of the student to that of responder; that is, students are most often asked to answer questions. In teacher-centered approaches, students are very seldom asked to make inquiries, act out simulated survival situations, narrate or describe events, hypothesize, argue, persuade, provide opinion, or carry out many other language functions that are necessary in everyday encounters with others in the target language. In many cases, functional practice of this sort is reserved for advanced conversation courses, many of which the majority of students never take. Proficiency-oriented methodologies should introduce students to a variety of functional tasks that have been carefully sequenced to help them cope with the real-world communication demands they will face. The list of task universals that individuals should be able to handle at each level of proficiency on the ILR Scale is given in Illustration 2.2. This list may be useful in designing a sequence of functional language practice activities that will build towards those competencies at the higher levels of proficiency from the beginning of instruction. (A more complete list of language functions as well as activities that afford practice in using language functions are presented in Chapter 5.)

Hypothesis 3. In proficiency-oriented methods there is a concern for the development of linguistic accuracy from the beginning of instruction.

There are at least two compelling reasons for hypothesizing that some type of monitoring and correction of errors is necessary from the beginning of second language instruction, at least for those learners who want to function eventually beyond Level 2 (Advanced). Both reasons arise from

Illustration 2.2.
Functions

4	Represents point of view Negotiates Persuades Counsels Tailors language to audience
3	Handles unfamiliar topics or situations Hypothesizes Provides supported opinion
2	Gets into, through, and out of survival situations with a complication Narrates Describes
1	Gets into, through, and out of survival situations simply Asks questions Answers questions Creates
0+	Communicates with memorized material
0	Has no functional ability

Source: Pardee Lowe, Jr. *Manual for Language School Oral Interview Workshops.* Washington, D.C.: Defense Language Institute/Language School Joint Oral Interview Transfer Project, 1982.

recent research studies. The first relates to native speakers' judgments of second language learners' efforts at communication and the second relates to maximum proficiency levels attained by learners whose errors were not systematically corrected during acquisition and/or learning of the target language.

In the first set of studies, native speakers' reactions to learners' errors revealed that lexical and grammatical errors are the most obstructive to communication. In addition, native speakers tend to vary in their levels of tolerance for certain types of errors, and some language communities may be more tolerant of errors than others. For example, Ensz (1982) found that "the French people, . . . irrespective of sex, age, occupation, or home region in France, expressed a significant intolerance for grammatical errors" (p.138). She adds that "while an American accent and some anglicisms may be moderately tolerable, American speakers of French should be most concerned that they speak with the greatest possible grammatical accuracy" (p. 138). This concern with accuracy, however, is not incompatible with the encouragement of spontaneous communication of ideas in the second language, a view that will be explored further in subsequent chapters.

The second body of research relating to the question of grammaticality was alluded to in Chapter 1. Studies done at the CIA Language School using performance profiles of second language learners revealed the phenomenon of the "terminal 2"—the fossilization of incorrect forms and inappropriate communication strategies at Level 2 or 2+. It seems that attention to accuracy is fundamental in early language learning situations if one is to attain more than a minimal competence in a second language. (More details on both sets of studies are presented in Chapter 7.)

The decision to strive for linguistic accuracy from the beginning of instruction does not imply a de-emphasis of communicative language use in the classroom. As Higgs and Clifford (1982) stress:

A curricular or programmatic decision to strive for linguistic accuracy from the beginning of a program in no way excludes an approach or methodology in which the target language is used as the medium of instruction and for authentic, if relatively more constrained communication. (p. 77)

They maintain that no reasoned interpretation of the CIA Language School data would suggest a return to grammar-translation or classical mimicry-memorization methods. Rather, the data suggest that we must recognize in some systematic fashion the ultimate role that linguistic accuracy will play in the achievement of true communicative competence and build toward accuracy from the first day of instruction.

Canale and Swain (1980a) echo this point of view in their analysis of the literature on the theoretical bases for communicative approaches to language teaching. Among the conclusions they reach in relation to the role of accuracy in such approaches, they note that "there seems to be no strong theoretical reasons for emphasizing getting one's meaning across over grammatical accuracy at the early stages of second language learning. In fact, there seem to be a number of reasons for not doing so!" (p. 14). They go on to suggest that the best approach might be one which begins with a *combination of emphasis* on grammatical accuracy and on meaningful communication, where such communication is organized according to the basic communication needs of the learner and where "knowledge of idiosyncratic appropriateness conditions in the second language" is not required to any great extent (p. 15). Thus, Canale and Swain also believe that teachers should help students build toward accuracy from the beginning of instruction.

It should be clear from this discussion that "building toward accuracy" does not imply that students should be expected to produce *only* correct utterances or that an optimal methodology should provide "wall-to-wall insurance against error" (Stevick, 1980, p. 24). Learners obviously do not generally produce correct speech or writing when creating with the language. (A general typology of learners' linguistic accuracy at various stages

Illustration 2.3.
Accuracy

4	Only occasional unpatterned errors Nearly perfect grammar Errors of grammar quite rare
3	Occasional errors in low-frequency structures Occasional errors in the most complex frequent structures Only sporadic errors in basic structures Errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker Control of grammar good
2	Joining sentences in limited discourse Good control of morphology of the language (in inflected languages) and of the most frequently used syntactic structures Elementary constructions usually handled quite accurately, but does not have a thorough or confident control of grammar Some miscommunication Understandable to a native speaker not used to dealing with foreigners
1	Normally errors made even in constructions which are quite simple and common Errors in pronunciation and grammar frequent Intelligible to a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners
0	No functional ability (some intelligibility expected)

Source: Pardee Lowe, Jr. *Manual for Language School Oral Interview Workshops.* Washington, D.C.: Defense Language Institute/Language School Joint Oral Interview Transfer Project, 1982.

of proficiency is given in Illustration 2.3.) In addition, research has repeatedly shown that errors are very useful in determining an individual's current internalized rule system and yield important diagnostic information.

Because proficiency-oriented methodologies encourage learners to create with the language and express their own meaning from the beginning of instruction, errors of all types are to be expected. We might, however, be able to help students produce more accurate speech if we adopt an "output hypothesis" similar to Krashen's input hypothesis. That is, our methodologies might (1) provide comprehensible input in addition to formal instruction, (2) encourage students to express their own meaning

within, or even slightly beyond, the limits of their current level of competence, and (3) consistently provide corrective feedback. Such an approach may produce more comprehensible output among our students at each stage of proficiency. It will also require the use of carefully structured activities that encourage self-expression, yet provide at some point for the monitoring and correction of errors.

Hypothesis 4. Proficiency-oriented methodologies respond to the affective needs of students as well as to their cognitive needs.

One of the hallmarks of several recent methodological developments is the greater emphasis on the affective aspects of learning and acquisition (see, for example, the discussions of the Counseling-Learning Approach, Confluent Education, the Natural Approach, and Suggestopedia presented later in this chapter). Proponents of humanistic methods believe that learning should be aimed at the deeper levels of understanding and personal meaningfulness to be maximally effective. Such methods emphasize the need to reduce anxiety and tension, which inhibit performance and create resistance to natural language acquisition and to learning. Stevick (1980) emphasizes the close relationship between poor performance and anxiety and tension in the learning environment (due to self-critique as well as criticism by others). This relationship is central to Krashen's filter hypothesis (see Chapter 1), based on the concept of the affective filter, somewhat akin to a mental block: "With acquirers who do not have self-confidence, where the situation is tense, where (in Stevick's words) they are on the defensive, the filter goes up" (p. 25). When the affective filter goes up, the resultant feelings are conflict, anxiety, aloneness, and a sense of guilt for failing. These feelings are clearly out of harmony with the best conditions for acquisition (Stevick, 1980).

Brown (1984) agrees that we can assume to some extent that lowered anxiety and inhibition will increase comprehensible input and therefore acquisition, but he feels that the hard evidence for holding this view is somewhat scanty. In addition, he points out that although too much anxiety may have harmful effects on learning, *too little* anxiety can also cause failure. If a student's affective filter is too low, there may be little motivation to learn. "We do well to note that anxiety can be debilitative but it can also be *facilitative*. . . . As teachers we should allow some of the anxiety and tension to remain in our classes lest our students become so 'laid back' that they fail to perceive the input when it comes!" (Brown, 1984, p. 278).

Whether or not we agree per se with the need to include certain types of affective activities in the classroom, most language educators today would agree that students will probably attain a given degree of proficiency more rapidly in an environment that is accepting, relaxed, and person-

alized. This principle relates to the issue of error correction, discussed in Chapter 7.

Hypothesis 5. Proficiency-oriented methodologies promote cultural understanding and prepare students to live more harmoniously in the target-language community.

For many years, foreign language educators have been emphasizing the need to incorporate a cultural syllabus into the curriculum and to promote global awareness and cross-cultural understanding. (See, for example, Stern, 1981.) The use of techniques to increase cultural understanding should receive a high priority in any task hierarchy that defines a proficiency-oriented method. Strategies and techniques for teaching cultural understanding are presented in Chapter 9.

The Proficiency Orientation of Existing Methodologies: A Preliminary Appraisal

In order to make a preliminary appraisal of the extent to which various existing teaching approaches and methodologies are oriented toward proficiency, it would be useful to determine how many of the hypothesized elements discussed in the previous section are assigned a relatively high priority in a given approach.

There are several problems, however, in any formal comparison of methods in this way. As stated earlier, it is often difficult to clearly define a method to the satisfaction of everyone familiar with it, since there are currently many individual variations and interpretations of each method being used. If, as Westphal (1979) suggested, we consider method as a combination of a given *syllabus*, a philosophical or theoretical *approach*, and a choice of teaching *strategies*, all of which are then "seasoned" with a teacher's personal style, we may find it relatively difficult to characterize any methodology in the abstract. Before the demise of the purest form of audiolingualism in the late 1960s, such a methodological comparison would not have been as difficult, since teachers using the audiolingual method were expected to follow a particular syllabus, use accepted materials and teaching strategies, and subscribe to the underlying theoretical basis on which the methodology was founded. (However, not all teachers followed the method as rigidly as they had been trained to do, even though it was prescriptive down to the smallest detail.) Since the early 1970s many foreign language practitioners have been electing to use selected techniques from a variety of methods in their classrooms or adapting a given method or approach to suit the abilities, needs, and interests of their students. Therefore, each method or approach being subjected to scrutiny

ACCESS
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The Cooperative Newsletter of:
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*Programs of The American Forum

Exchange News

1989-90 Fulbright Teacher Exchange

The United States Information Agency has announced details of the 1989-90 Fulbright Teacher Exchange Program. It involves a one-on-one exchange for elementary through post-secondary teachers with suitable teachers overseas. The 1989-90 programs will involve Argentina, Australia, Belgium/Luxembourg, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Chile, Cyprus, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, France, Hungary, Iceland, Mexico, The Netherlands, Norway, Panama, the Philippines, Senegal, South Africa, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. There are also summer seminars abroad which range from 3 - 8 weeks in The Netherlands and Italy. Applications are due by October 15, 1988. For further information contact Fulbright Teacher Exchange Program, E/ASX, United States Information Agency, 301 Fourth St., S.W., Washington, D.C. 20547; (202) 485-2555.

Mobility International Plans China Trip

Mobility International USA is seeking disabled and nondisabled persons 18 years and older (preferably occupational, physical, and recreational therapists) who are interested in learning about disability issues in China. The exchange program, called Challenges in China, is designed to reach out to disabled persons and professionals who work with them. Participants will travel to Beijing, Hangzhou, Shanghai, and Suzhou from November 3-21, 1988. The cost, including round trip airfare from San Francisco, is $2,500. Contact: China Program, Mobility International USA, P.O. Box 3551, Eugene, OR 97403; (503) 343-1284.

Citizens Exchange Council Offers U.S.S.R. Program

The Citizens Exchange Council will offer school conference programs with the Soviet Union in February and March of 1989 for high school students and teachers. More than 80 participants from six American schools visited the U.S.S.R. this past March. Visits to Moscow and Leningrad will be included in this year's program. CEC also offers journals, videos, and other materials for educators about Soviet-American relations. For further information contact Citizens Exchange Council, 18 East 41st Street, New York, NY 10017; (212) 889-7960.

Send recently published books, videos, curriculum guides, and other teaching materials for possible inclusion in *Access*. Send review copies to *Access* Editor, The American Forum, 45 John Street, Suite 1200, New York, NY 10038.

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Access is the cooperative newsletter of **The American Forum: Education in a Global Age,*** **The Council for Intercultural Studies and Programs** (CISP) and the **International Exchange Association, Inc.**

Access contains current information on materials, events, and news related to global/international education and foreign languages. Organizations, schools, and individuals are encouraged to send information about their projects, programs, and resources for possible inclusion in *Access*. Persons wishing to submit feature articles should request guidelines for submission from the Editor.

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Elementary School Foreign Languages: Perspectives, Practices and Promises*

by Carol Ann Pesola and Helena Anderson Curtain

"Everything old is new again!" This refrain of a popular song expresses very well the situation of elementary school foreign languages at the end of the 1980s. Languages for children, considered a natural part of the curriculum in the early history of the United States, became an educational status symbol in the 1960s and then were cut from most school programs in the wake of budgetary pressures and some disillusionment with the results of language instruction. Now a renewed look at educational priorities in a world of increasing global interdependence has brought foreign languages into the curriculum again. Children have begun to learn languages in their elementary school classrooms because their parents – informed by national studies and prominent critics of education – have discovered that foreign languages are critical for involvement with business, politics, and even recreation in a shrinking world.

The Rationale

A rationale for programs at the elementary level can be based on a number of commonly accepted elements. One of the few largely undisputed assertions about language learning is that the longer the student is exposed to a foreign language, the more language fluency can be attained. Children who begin language study in elementary school and continue for a number of years will be able to develop a considerable degree of practical proficiency in that language. A number of studies (Diaz, Landry, Lopata, Masciantonio, Rafferty) suggest that foreign language learning also enhances cognitive development and basic skills' performance for elementary school children. One reason for the improved performance in English language arts among children learning a foreign language may well be that while they are developing the ability to communicate in a different language, they also learn to see language as a phenomenon in itself.

Increasing awareness of global interdependence has resulted in a curricular emphasis on global education. A foreign language can provide one of the most important bridges to the understanding of other cultures and perspectives. Children between the ages of 7 and 10 may be at a critical stage for the development of cultural pluralism (Yerxa); at age ten they are reported to have a maximum degree of openness to people perceived as dissimilar to themselves (Lambert and Klineberg). Finally, career potential is considerably improved for the individual who combines other skills with fluency in a foreign language.

Foreign Languages in U.S. Elementary Schools

Unlike most other countries, the United States has no national policy on elementary school foreign languages. Local control of the curriculum and goals of education is one of the most distinctive and traditional aspects of American education. National priorities are sometimes expressed through federal funding of special projects, as was the case with National Defense Education Act funds in the 1960s and with Title II funding in the 1980s. Yet it is the prerogative of each state and each local district to choose whether to participate in such national efforts. With each educational innovation, many districts wait until a clear trend has been established before implementing local programs; some other districts seek to be first on the bandwagon and then may discard a new program before others have even tried it. This trendiness has clearly been a factor in the role of elementary school foreign languages in the United States over the past 35 years, and it creates significant problems in the area of teacher preparation. Few colleges and universities can afford to risk the resources necessary to develop programs of teacher preparation for trends which are not yet well established. In the case of elementary school foreign languages, many school programs have been developed by teachers who have little background or experience to prepare them for teaching foreign languages to children.

Characteristics of the Child Learner

The single most important fact about the child learner is often unrecognized by the teacher trained to work with adolescents. The child is not just a learner with less experience and sophistication than the teacher has. The child actually thinks differently, reasons differently, and experiences the world in a dramatically different way than the teacher or adolescent and adult learners. The teacher who works successfully with children of elementary school age has learned to present the language through concrete objects rather than abstract concepts, to plan active, meaningful experiences and surround them with language. Social and cultural situations and concepts from the curriculum can be used to create a meaningful context for language learning experiences, as well

* This article is an abridged version of the background paper for the American Forum's project to develop teacher education guidelines for elementary school foreign language teachers.

as games, songs and rhymes, and experiences with arts, crafts and sports. Lavish use of visuals, props, and realia will give children the hands-on experiences which are so important if effective learning is to take place.

Second Language Acquisition

In addition to awareness of the special characteristics of the child learner, teachers must also take into account recent insights on second language acquisition. In a classroom designed to promote second language acquisition, the target language is the primary means of interaction, providing children with an environment in which the language is used naturally as a real means of communication. Early experiences with the language will emphasize listening comprehension rather than speaking, giving children the opportunity to associate the new language with sounds and expressions. The teacher and students will use the language mainly to communicate rather than for rote memorization and grammar-based drills.

For children to benefit from studying languages they must understand the message being communicated. The teacher ensures this understanding by modifying the language with "teacher talk" or "motherese;" through gestures, visuals, and concrete examples; and through the routines of the lesson and the school day. This language of the classroom, called "input" by Krashen and others, is assimilated by students and later drawn upon when they are ready to speak or write in the target language. Written forms of familiar language can also be used as input, even in early stages of language acquisition, with children who are literate in their first language.

Foreign Language Program Models

Second only to the importance of an appropriately prepared teacher is the selection of a program model that is compatible with the goals and the resources of the school or the community. We now have experience with a variety of elementary school foreign language programs and can predict the results of each model. Length of time and intensity of exposure to the target language are the most important factors in language learning. School systems must set realistic goals. Much disillusionment can be avoided and replaced by solid support if programs are designed to meet local needs and priorities.

Immersion Programs

In an immersion approach to foreign language instruction the usual curricular activities are conducted in the target language. Thus the new language is the medium as well as the object of instruction. Since the first French immersion program was developed in 1965 in St. Lambert, near Montreal, the concept has become so popular that there are now over 170,000 students in Canada enrolled in immersion and over 9,000 U.S. students enrolled in more than 30 programs in this country. The following goals are most commonly identified:

- Functional proficiency in the second language; children are able to communicate in the second language appropriate to their age.
- Mastery of content of the school district curriculum.
- Cross-cultural understanding.
- Achievement in English language arts comparable to or surpassing the achievement of students in English-only programs.

Research results in Milwaukee (Curtain and Pesola) are similar to those reported in Canadian immersion programs (Swain, Lambert, and Tucker): children in immersion, on tests of English language arts and subject content material, perform as well as or better than their peers who are receiving English-only instruction. In addition, they acquire fluency in a second language.

FLES Programs

FLES (Foreign Languages in Elementary School) has sometimes been used to refer to all elementary school foreign language programs, but it is more appropriately applied to a specific program type. A FLES program meets up to five times per week, for class periods of twenty minutes to one hour or more. It is a continuous, articulated program providing a foundation for later study in secondary school. Minimal instructional time in quality FLES programs is not less than thirty minutes per day, five days per week. Some FLES classes integrate or reinforce concepts from other areas of the curriculum but because of time limitations these classes often focus on the target language and its cultures.

Like immersion programs, the goal of FLES programs is functional proficiency in the second language, but FLES students cannot attain as high a degree of proficiency as can immersion students. FLES program goals usually include proficiency in listening and speaking, the degree of proficiency depending on the program's intensity; understanding and appreciation of other cultures; and some proficiency in reading and writing, the emphasis and degree varying with the program.

Content-Enriched FLES

In some FLES programs the basic language curriculum is augmented with subject content taught in the second language, and more than an hour a day but less than half the day is spent in the second language. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen point out the significant impact on language acquisition of exposure to the target language as the medium of instruction. The lesser amount of time spent in teaching subject content by means of the language distinguishes this model from immersion; it differs from other forms of FLES in that there is a greater emphasis on subject content than on language instruction.

In the content-enriched FLES program it is easier to reach functional language proficiency than in regular FLES programs because of the range of topics covered

and the more time spent using the language. Students also master the subject taught through the second language.

FLEX Programs

FLEX programs (Foreign Language Exploratory or Experience Programs) are self-contained, short-term language experiences from three weeks to one year long. They may be found in elementary schools and middle/junior high schools. Exploratory programs have many variations, reflecting a wide range of school system priorities, but they tend to share the following goals:

- introduction to language learning
- awareness and appreciation of foreign cultures
- appreciation of the value of communicating in another language
- enhanced understanding of English
- motivation to further language study

Many of the variations in FLEX programs result from the differing emphases given to these goals.

Implications of Program Choice

Creating a smooth transition from foreign language programs at one level of schooling to those at the next has long been one of the great challenges facing the profession. Each of the program models described above has significant – and different – implications for middle and junior high school programs and for senior high school offerings. Immersion students can communicate with some sophistication in the target language and would benefit from continuing study of subject content in the target language and from language arts experiences to refine their target language skills. Graduates of FLES programs or content-enriched FLES programs with at least 150 hours of high-quality language instruction will require a continuation program similar to that of a Level Two secondary school class, although their experiences and their skills will be different from those of secondary students with a similar number of hours of school contact with the language. Both FLES and immersion graduates would benefit from learning subject content in the target language at the secondary school level.

Graduates of FLEX and similar programs also require special attention in the middle/junior high school. When their previous language experiences are taken seriously and used as the basis for further development in their "beginning" language course, the most desirable possible learning environment can result.

No matter how much or how little of the foreign language has been acquired at the elementary school level, it is most appropriate to plan a middle/junior high program focused on communication in the target language rather than on grammar and syntax. Because so many middle school children are still concrete thinkers, or in early stages of formal operations, these may be the worst possible years in which to deal with the abstractions of grammar for the first time. Further, the failure to build on the gains and the enthusiasm developed in the elementary school is both demotivating and shortsighted. Programs that develop experiences allowing young people to use their language proficiency in an increasing variety of meaningful settings, especially relating to the local and the world community, will address both the developmental and the linguistic needs of young adolescent learners. Foreign language teachers at all levels must be prepared to work together to develop the best possible total language program, based on the needs and the skills of the students and the resources of the staff and the school setting.

Lessons from Immersion Classrooms

The elementary school foreign language teacher of 1988 and beyond has a new set of models and goals. The success and popularity of immersion programs show the potential for language programs at every level of intensity. Foreign languages can be learned when they are the vehicle for gaining general skills and knowledge, perhaps even more effectively than when they are taught in isolation. The foreign language can be used in activities for developing higher order thinking skills. Children who use a foreign language to classify in several ways instead of to conjugate verbs will learn the language more effectively and experience cognitive growth as well. When teachers reinforce important concepts from the general elementary school curriculum, the language class becomes an integral part of the entire school program and will enhance the broad curricular goals. At the same time, children become more proficient in the foreign language itself than would be possible if the language were taught directly, in isolation from the rest of the school program. Goals of social development can be reinforced through cooperative group work in the foreign language class as students are placed in a position where they have the need and motivation to communicate with one another.

Teaching any part of the curriculum through the medium of a foreign language places special demands on the foreign language teacher. The teacher must plan activities both for the content goals and for acquiring the language. Extra time and attention will be given to providing concrete experiences and to eliciting feedback on the learning that has taken place. The outstanding results of this approach to elementary school foreign language teaching make worthwhile the extra effort needed to plan lessons with both language and content goals.

Teaching Culture and Global Awareness

No single goal for foreign languages in the elementary school is more frequently cited than that of cultural understanding and global awareness. As is the case with other parts of the curriculum, children learn about culture most effectively through meaningful experiences rather than through discussion, slides, reports, and reading. Because the language itself is the most important evidence

of the culture available to children, it is a starting point and the obvious vehicle for culture learning. Artifacts, customs, celebrations, and personal representatives of the culture can become a part of daily classroom experiences. Letter, tape, and picture exchanges with children from the target culture can bring new meaning and importance to the experience of learning a language. Most important, real information from the culture must be a daily part of the classroom activities. Sometimes information can be the object of instruction in the same way that math or social studies curriculum content might provide the focus. Practices like bowing or handshaking can be used as a part of daily routines. Objects from the culture can enhance the classroom atmosphere and serve as tools and concrete examples for learning experiences.

Challenges for the Profession

The elementary school foreign language classroom in the 1990s and beyond can become an integral and integrative component of the elementary school curriculum. Even FLES and FLEX programs can assume responsibility for introducing or reinforcing objectives from other content areas; for developing higher order intellectual skills; for encouraging global awareness and positive intercultural attitudes; for establishing a solid, experience-based foundation on which high-level language skills can be built. Only teachers who are fluent speakers of the target language and who have meaningful personal experiences in the target culture will be capable of developing and teaching in programs which make the most of this potential. Students preparing to become elementary school teachers should be encouraged to become fluent in a foreign language, and they should be supported in their efforts to improve their skills by living in the foreign culture.

The teacher in this classroom must have the best possible foreign language skills, the best possible elementary school teaching skills, and the best possible language teaching skills. This teacher must also have the best possible support, both in professional resources and contacts (especially in the case of the isolated foreign language teacher in a small system) and also in the administration and community. Only a concerted effort from many directions will make it possible to develop high-quality foreign language programs: it will require the effort of the foreign language teaching profession, of school board and administrators' associations, of parent groups, of business and industry, and of government funding agencies. In this time of high priority for education and of global relationships requiring great sensitivity, such effort could not be better invested.

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PNCFL in Missoula!

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The Pacific Northwest Council on Foreign Languages invites papers and presentations dealing with any language, literature or culture, as well as applied linguistics and pedagogy for its 39th annual meeting to be held jointly with the Montana Association of Language Teachers, 11-13 May 1989, in Missoula, Montana.

Submission deadline: 1 December 1988.

*Papers, a representative sampling of which will be published in Selecta, Journal of the PNCFL, must be in FINAL FORM by the December 1, 1988, deadline.

For information on submission procedures:

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Attend

Federal Legislative Update

by Kurt E. Müller

The following are excerpts from a report of the Joint National Committee for Languages and the Liaison Group for International Educational Exchange. It summarizes the recent legislative activity concerning international education.

I. Public Laws

PL 100-79, Geography Awareness Week, was designated November 15-21, 1987. The resolution notes the importance of studying geography, languages, and world cultures for the continued strength of the U.S. in "matters of business, politics, and the environment."

PL 100-202, Continuing Appropriations for FY88, cut funds available under Title VI of the Higher Education Act and under the Fulbright-Hays Act. Title II of the Education for Economic Security Act received a major jump in funding. USIA exchange programs received a boost, with a pilot program for leaders of developing nations and a set-aside for US-Soviet exchanges. Overall funding for foreign assistance dropped although functional-development accounts were increased, and new funds for developing countries included funds for basic education, for a Sub-Saharan Africa Development Fund, and for loans to small enterprises in developing countries.

PL 100-204, Foreign Relations Authorization Act, FY 88 and 89, increased authorized levels of expenditures for USIA's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, including the Arts America Program, and established the Samantha Smith Memorial Exchange Program. Funds were cut for Soviet and East European research; scholarship assistance for Caribbean students was urged; assistance for Tibetan students was required. Visa denials based on ideology of applicants was prohibited through February 1989.

PL 100-297, The Omnibus Education Act, signed 28 April 1988, is a major piece of legislation for global educators. Significant provisions include:

Foreign Language Provisions

Magnet schools assistance. Funds to eliminate or reduce minority-group isolation while offering a special curriculum, e.g., foreign languages.

Presidential awards for foreign language teachers. This provision authorizes the establishment of 104 presidential awards.

Star schools program offers demonstration grants to telecommunications partnerships to acquire and develop instructional programming in science, math, and foreign languages.

Bilingual Education Provisions

The legislation limits participation in federally funded bilingual programs to three years (extension possible). Funds are provided for data collection, evaluation and research, training and assistance. Priority is given to programs with several languages. The bill designated the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics as a national clearinghouse on literacy education for individuals with limited proficiency in English.

Elementary and Secondary Programs

Targeted assistance for educational improvement. Funds are provided to enrich secondary school curricula.

Effective schools. Funds are offered to plan, support, evaluate, and revise effective schools programs.

Secretary's Fund for Innovation authorizes support for projects to strengthen elementary and secondary education by demonstrating an innovative approach to subject matter, including the application of radio, television, and computer-based instruction.

Proposed Amendments on the English Language

Three items concern constitutional amendments affecting language use in the United States. Two would establish English as the official national language. HJRes 13, and HJRes 60 would prohibit requiring the use of other languages and would not prohibit instruction in other languages *for purposes of teaching English* (emphasis added). HJRes 33, HJRes 83, and SJRes 13 (similar bills) would proclaim English the official language of the nation and would further give Congress authority to pass enforcement legislation. HJRes 232 and SJRes 114, the Cultural Rights Amendment, an alternative to the English-only legislation, would extend the doctrine of equal protection of the law to discrimination on the basis of culture or language and would empower Congress to pass enforcement legislation.

II. Education

S 8, Alliance for Education Act, would authorize $30 million per year (for 3 years) to create alliances among business, industry, schools, institutions of higher education, state agencies, and the like.

S 759/HR 2157, Higher Education Amendments of 1987, would publicize loan-deferral options for full-time service in the Peace Corps, Vista, and 501(c)(3) organizations. Current law allows such deferral.

S 760/HR2156, Higher Education Volunteer Services Amendments Act, would partially forgive loans for service in 501(c)(3) organizations.

S 831, Future Teacher Training Corps Act, would establish fellowships to encourage elementary and

secondary teachers in fields of study or in geographic areas with teacher shortages.

SConRes 26/HConRes 65, Improvement of US Foreign Language Skills and International Awareness, would express Congress' concern for a cooperative effort to improve language skills and international awareness in order to help the nation compete economically.

HR 252, Federal Student Loan Act, would provide loan funds to higher education institutions for graduate and undergraduate study.

HR 460, Voluntary National Youth Service Act, would provide state and local agencies with matching funds to hire 16-24 year olds and pay them with stipends or educational benefits.

HR 2632, Voluntary Education Demonstration Program Act, would offer benefits covering tuition, room, board, and books for juniors and seniors in exchange for two years' Peace Corps service on graduation from college.

S 374/HR 717, America's Living Standard Act, would provide graduate fellowships for study abroad in science and technology, with preference to students with proficiency in a foreign language, and funds for language instruction and undergraduate fellowships for students intending to teach shortage subjects at the secondary level.

S 851, Inter-American Scholarship Partnership Act, would provide loan funds for students from the Caribbean Basin for two years of training, including courses in intensive English.

HR 1019 would permit use of education block-grant funds for an exchange program that brings children to the U.S. from areas affected by the civil strife in Ireland.

HRes 20, Foreign Student Intern Program, would authorize each House member to hire a foreign student for one month annually.

AATG

The American Association of Teachers of German is dedicated to the advancement and improvement of the teaching of the language, literature and culture of the German-speaking countries and provides its members with a variety of educational and professional services:

— five issues of the **Newsletter**
— four issues of the **German Quarterly**
— two issues of **Die Unterrichtspraxis**
— two issues of the **CLL/ERIC News Bulletin**
— access to the Audio-Visual Media Center
Printed Materials Center
Teacher Aid Depository
— financial support for its 60 Chapters

— cooperation with Federal Republic of Germany for financial support of six major association programs
— cooperation with Goethe Institute for seminars and the Certificate of Merit
- DAAD for short term research awards
- German Democratic Republic for summer seminars
- Lufthansa for travel awards
- Rheinland Pfalz for summer seminars and lectures
- Austria for student book prizes

— clearinghouse on positions through the Placement Information Center
— access to professional development programs for teachers at all levels (beginning fall 1987)
— invitation to the Annual Meeting
— a vote in the election of national officers
— support of the Washington liaison office of JNCL/CLOIS
— administration of Summer Travel-Study Program
— sponsorship of the American Association of Students of German (AASG) and eight issues of the **Rundbrief**
— support of the National German Honor Society
— sponsorship of the National Testing Program
— administration of the Awards Program
— availability of thirteen group insurance plans
— assistance with trips through the Travel Desk

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Foreign Language Resources

Benya, Rosemarie, comp., and Kurt E. Müller, ed. ***Children and Languages: Research, Practice, and Rationale for the Early Grades***. NY: The American Forum, 1988.

26 articles by teachers, administrators, linguists, and psychologists provide the groundwork for elementary school foreign language teaching. Topics include comparisons of immersion, FLES, and FLEX programs, reports from specific elementary school programs, second language acquisition research, and teaching methodologies. Each chapter includes a reference list. 247 pages. Contact: The American Forum, 45 John Street, Suite 1200, New York, NY 10038.

Curtain, Helena Anderson, and Carol Ann Pesola. ***Languages and Children: Making the Match***. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1988.

This book covers the theory and practice of foreign language teaching in elementary schools. It is can be used as a methods text for pre- and in-service teacher preparation and as a general resource guide. It gives a sample lesson plan and resource lists. 288 pages. Contact: Addison-Wesley Co., World Language Division, Route 128, Reading, MA 01867.

FLES News. Published fall, winter, and spring. Washington, DC: National Network for Early Language Learning, Center for Applied Linguisitics.

This newsletter is written by and for educators involved in the teaching of foreign languages to young children. It covers teaching methods, suggested classroom activities, and research. 8 pages. Contact: Center for Applied Linguisitics, 1118 22nd Street NW, Washington, D.C., 20037.

Lipton, Gladys C. ***Practical Handbook to Elementary Foreign Language Programs: Including FLES, FLEX, and Immersion Programs***. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook, 1988.

This book gives advice on how to establish, maintain, and improve primary and middle school foreign language programs. Included are a chapter on promoting FLES, sample lesson plans, games for FLES, model programs, and a bibliography. 206 pages; $12.95 plus 8% postage (if not a prepaid order).

Littlewood, William T. ***Language-Acquisition Research and its Implications for the Classroom***. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

This short survey of language-acquisition research treats first language acquisition theories, error-analysis studies, and studies of the learning sequences of grammatical structures. The author applies conclusions from his survey to a discussion of foreign language learning. 120 pages. Contact: Cambridge University Press, 510 North Avenue, New Rochelle, NY 10801.

Rhodes, Nancy C., and Audrey R. Schreibstein. ***Foreign Language in the Elementary School: A Practical Guide***. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1983.

This is a guide for parents, teachers, and administrators who are starting a foreign language program. It covers immersion, FLEX, and FLES programs, lists U.S. schools with foreign language programs. 56 pages. Contact: ACTFL Materials Center, P.O. Box 408, Hastings-on-Hudson, NY 10706, or Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St., NW, Washington, DC 20037.

Schinke-Llano, Linda. ***Foreign Language in the Elementary School: State of the Art***. Language in Education: Theory and Practice Series, No. 62. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1985.

The author discusses the history of elementary school foreign language programs from the 1950s to the 1980s, how to run these programs, evaluation, areas of the field that need further development, and lists early foreign language programs in the U.S. 145 pages. Contact: Prentice-Hall, Book Distribution Center, Route 59, Brook Hill Drive, West Nyack, NY 10994.

Selected Organizations

Advocates for Language Learning
Box 4964
Culver City, CA 90231

American Association of Teachers of French
57 Armory Ave.
Champaign, IL 61820

American Association of Teachers of German
Suite 201, 523 Building
Route 38
Cherry Hill, NJ 08034

American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese
Mississippi State University
Mississippi State, MS 39762

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
579 Broadway
Hastings-on-Hudson, NY 10706

Center for Language Education and Research
1100 Glendon Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90024

French & Spanish Book Corporation
15 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10003

Gessler Publishing Co.
900 Broadway
New York, NY 10003

Langenscheidt Publishers, Inc.
46-35 54th Road
Maspeth, NY 11378

Lectorum Publishers
137 W. 14 Street
New York, NY 10011

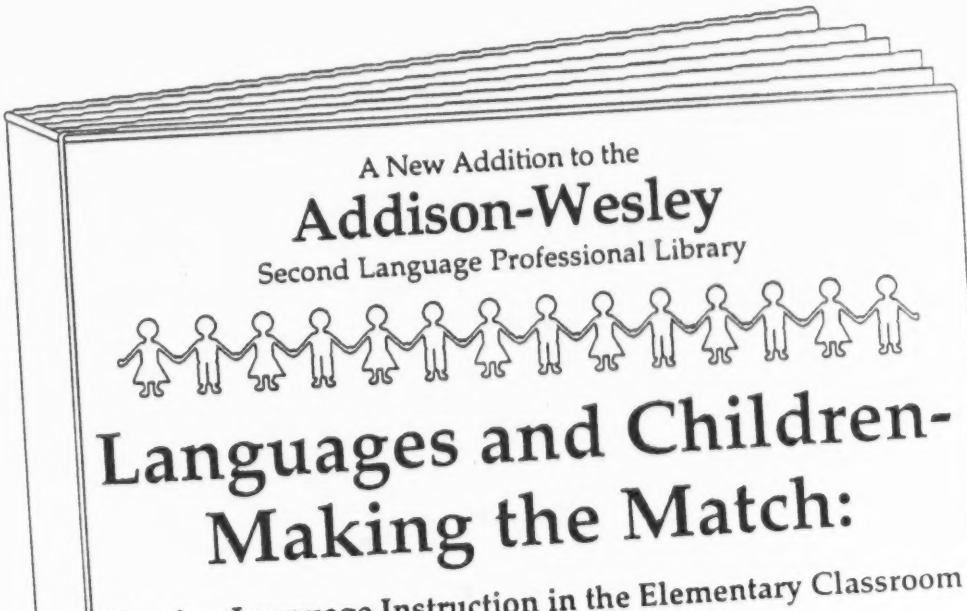
Modern Language Association
10 Astor Place
New York, NY 10003

National Textbook Co.
4255 West Touhy Avenue
Lincolnwood, IL 60646

National Network for Early Language Learning
c/o Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22 Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20037

Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
252 Bloor Street W.
Toronto, Ontario M5S IVs,
Canada

Santillana Publishers
257 Union Street
Northvale, NJ 07647



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RESOURCES

Curriculum Materials

Choices in International Conflict. Stanford, CA: Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education, 1988.

This introduction to the causes and consequences of war and non-violent means of resolving conflict uses case studies of the Falklands/Malvinas crisis and the Camp David accords, and introduces the ideas of Ghandi. 98 pages; Grade 7 – junior college; $14.95. Contact: SPICE, 200 Lou Henry Hoover Building, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305-6012; (415) 723-1114.

Economic Choices: China After Mao. Stanford, CA: Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education, 1988.

This teaching guide examines free market and planned economic systems, and China's efforts to supplement its planned economy with market mechanisms. It includes slides, source and background materials, handouts, and exercises to familiarize students with the use of statistics. 43 pages; for 9-12 economics and social studies; $21.95. Contact: SPICE, 200 Lou Henry Hoover Building, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305-6012; (415) 723-1114.

Manson, Gary. ***World Geography***. Oklahoma City, OK: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1988.

This new McGraw-Hill world geography text contains sections on global systems, people and their environment, and areas of the world. 654 pages. Contact: McGraw-Hill Book Co., School Division, Educational Publishing and Training Group, P.O. Box 25308, 1200 N.W. 63 Street, Oklahoma City, OK 73125; (800) 654-8608.

Stanford, Barbara. ***Costa Rica: A Model of Peacemaking and Democracy***. Little Rock, AR: Arkansas International Center, 1987.

This teaching unit is part of the new *Living Textbook Series*. This unit includes a teacher's guide to teaching about Costa Rica and student handouts on Costa Rica's history and the country's involvement in the current peace process in Central America. 51 pages; for grades 9-12; $8. Contact: Arkansas International Center, University of Arkansas at Little Rock, Ottenheimer Library 524, 2801 South University, Little Rock, Arkansas 72204; (501) 569-3282.

Understanding Japan: A Teacher's & Textbook Writer's Handbook on Japan. Tokyo, Japan: International Society for Educational Information, Inc., 1987.

This handbook summarizes the geography, industry, economy, culture and history of Japan. 87 pages. Contact: International Society for Educational Information, Inc. Koryo Building, 18 Wakaba 1-chome, Shinjuku, Tokyo, 160 Japan.

Books/Directories/Articles

Academic Year Abroad, 1988-89. New York: Institute for International Education, 1988.

The 1988-89 edition of this guide book describes over 1200 study abroad programs offered by accredited U.S. colleges and universities and 400 additional programs sponsored by foreign universities, schools, and non-accredited U.S. and foreign organizations. 714 pages; $19.95. Contact: Institute for International Education, 809 United Nations Plaza, New York, NY 10017; (212) 984-5410.

Jones, Catherine, ed. ***Middle East Materials for Teachers, Students, and the Non-Specialist***. Tucson, Arizona: Middle East Outreach Council, 1988.

This new book contains over 400 annotated titles on Middle East materials, including history, geography, and literature. It was compiled by coordinators of university outreach centers across the U.S. It covers the Middle East geographically from Morocco to Afghanistan. There are 30 full-page reviews of selected resources. Materials listed are for grade 2 and up. 150 pages; $10 plus $1.70 postage and handling. Contact: Middle East Materials/MESA, Dept. of Oriental Studies, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721.

CALENDAR

National Council of Returned Peace Corps Volunteers Conference

July 15 - 17, 1988 **Boulder, Colorado**

This annual conference will feature workshops, a career fair and country group reunions. Contact Conference '88, P.O. Box 18995, Denver, Colorado 80218; (303) 831-4670.

Educating for New Ways of Thinking: An American Soviet Institute

August 7 - 21, 1988 **Amherst, Massachusetts**

20 Soviet and 20 American educators will examine ways to improve their teaching about each other's country. Topics will be teaching U.S.-Soviet relations, stereotyping, school reform movements, and studying controversial issues such as human rights. Contact Educators for Social Responsibility, 23 Garden Street, Cambridge, MA 02138; (617) 492-1764.

A Forum for Global Educators

August 23 - 26, 1988 **Sonoma County, California**

This summer program will address the professional and personal concerns of global and international educators. It will be held at Westerbeke Ranch in Sonoma County, California. Contact Global Educators, 15200 Hesperian Blvd. #101, San Leandro, CA 94578; (415) 276-0355.

Educating Global Citizens: Illuminating the Issues

March 11-14, 1989 **Orlando, Florida**

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) is accepting proposals for its 1989 annual conference. The deadline for proposals is July 1, 1988. Contact Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 125 North West Street, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 549-9110.

C L Vallen

The Modern Language Journal

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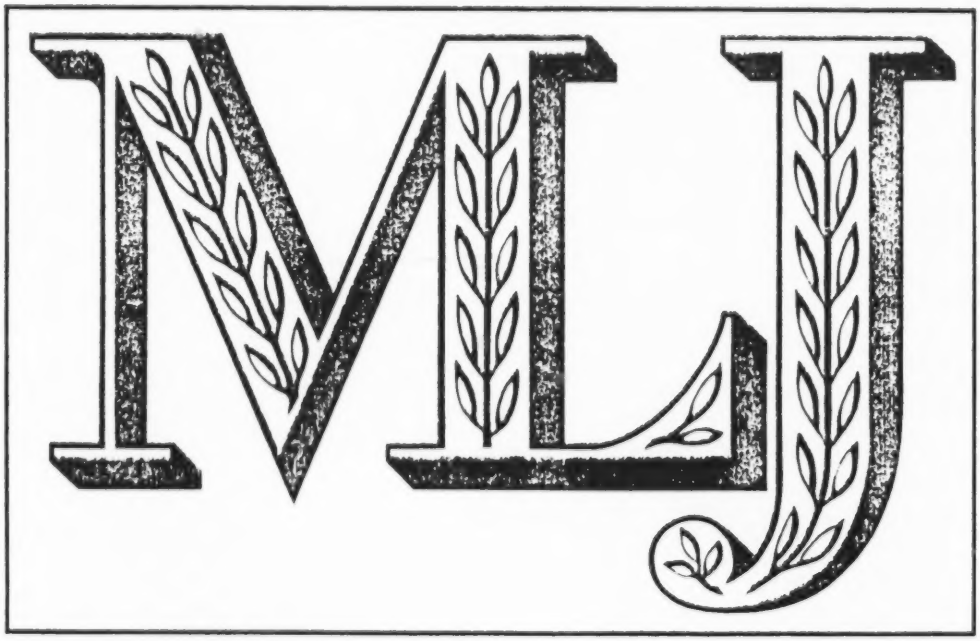
Devoted Primarily to Methods, Pedagogical Research, and Topics of Professional Interest to All Language Teachers



social and cultural events and festivals. The Goethe Institute, which coordinated the year-long German-American Tricentennial Celebration in 1983, offers an excellent program of lectures, films, exhibits, musical events, and informational materials. For more information about the program, contact Don Heinrich Tolzmann, Langsam Library M.L. 33, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, OH 45221; phone (513) 475-2411.

Principals Endorse FLES

At its 67th Convention in Orlando the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) adopted the following platform statement dealing with curriculum and instruction: "NAESP believes that foreign language proficiency is important for students who will live in the twenty-first century. NAESP therefore urges principals to consider the inclusion of instruction in a foreign language as a regular component of the schools' instructional program." The rationale for the statement was that "NAESP recognizes that today's students live in a nation characterized by ethnic and linguistic diversity—a diversity that is likely to continue and, perhaps, even increase in the coming years. The growing economic interdependence of the United States and its trading partners requires that tomorrow's citizens be competitive in the world marketplace. The ability to express oneself in and to understand languages other than English contributes to success in that competition" [ACTFL *PAN Newsletter* 6, v (Sept. 1987): 2].

PBS Airs French Series

Last fall, the Public Broadcasting System began airing a fifty-two part dramatic series entirely in French. *French in Action*, produced by Pierre J. Capretz, senior lecturer in French at Yale University, is the equivalent of two years of college-level instruction. The video has been designed for either a college course or for home study, and the package includes a workbook, audio-cassette series, and a textbook. *French in Action* was filmed in France with French actors. As the drama progresses, the vocabulary and syntax become more complex. Each installment concludes with instructional commentary by Mr. Capretz. For further information, call 1-800-LEARNER [ACTFL *PAN Newsletter* 6, v (Sept. 1987): 7].

American Association for Applied Linguistics

The American Association for Applied Linguistics is a professional association of scholars who are interested in and actively contributing to the multidisciplinary field of applied linguistics. Founded in 1977, AAAL promotes research, facilitates the distribution and exchange of information, and organizes scholarly conferences and meetings. AAAL actively cooperates with other related associations:

- AAAL holds an annual conference in conjunction with the Linguistic Society of America.
- AAAL is the US affiliate of the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA).
- AAAL cooperates in producing publications with the Center for Applied Linguistics, such as the International Directory of Applied Linguistics Organizations, and special articles on linguistics and the professions.
- AAAL jointly sponsors, with the British Association for Applied Linguistics, the journal *Applied Linguistics*.
- AAAL members may subscribe to journals (such as *Applied Linguistics* and *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*) at special reduced rates.

In addition, AAAL publishes a member's newsletter three times a year, which includes membership lists, preliminary program of annual meetings, publication notices, conference reports, and brief articles.

Membership in the Association is on a calendar-year basis and costs fifteen dollars per year. Back issues of the newsletter will be sent.

For further information, contact American Association for Applied Linguistics, 1325 18th Street, NW, Suite 211, Washington, DC 20036-6501.

ERIC/CLL News Bulletin

ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics

Volume 11, No. 2 March 1988

U.S. FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION: ASSESSING NEEDS AND CREATING AN ACTION PLAN

Rebecca L. Oxford and Nancy C. Rhodes, Center for Language Education and Research,[1] and Center for Applied Linguistics

"Our nation's indifference to foreign languages and cultures is unique among advanced industrial countries," stated a blue-ribbon panel five years ago (National Advisory Board on International Education Programs, 1983, p. 12). This assertion still rings true, according to the findings of a nationwide survey of U.S. foreign language instruction at elementary and secondary schools, conducted in late 1986 and early 1987. Although substantial numbers of foreign language programs exist, many are plagued by shortages of funds, teachers, and materials, according to survey respondents. Survey findings also suggest that existing programs suffer from inadequate foreign language exposure time and that they seriously slight some key world languages.

Why a Survey Was Needed, and How It Was Done

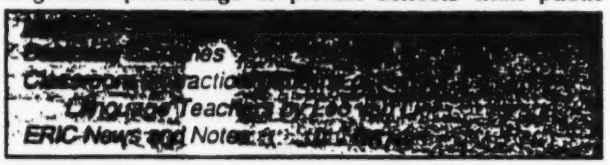
In the last decade, three high-level advisory groups independently concluded that the U.S. system of foreign language instruction needs a major overhaul, to include starting foreign language instruction in elementary grades (National Advisory Board on International Education Programs, 1983; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies, 1979). To paint a national portrait of U.S. foreign language instruction for planning purposes, the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Educational Research and Improvement asked the Center for Language Education and Research (CLEAR) to conduct a comprehensive survey of foreign language teaching in American elementary and secondary schools.

As the first step, a 5 percent stratified random sample (about 5,000 schools) was selected representing all U.S. elementary and secondary schools, both public and private. Using input from foreign language supervisors and teachers, two four-page questionnaires were designed and field tested, one for elementary and the other for secondary schools. Following an advance letter to the principal of each sample school, the questionnaires were mailed, and each principal was asked to complete the questionnaire or ask a foreign language teacher or supervisor to do so. Mail and telephone follow-ups were conducted to increase responses. The final response rate was 52 percent, representing 2,765 schools (1,416 elementary and 1,349 secondary). This response rate provided reliable estimates for the nation as a whole; see Rhodes and Oxford (1988a) for technical details.

Key Findings

Key results fall into three areas: (a) amount and kind of foreign language instruction; (b) background and training of teachers; and (c) the major problems cited by respondents in their foreign language programs. See Rhodes and Oxford (1988a; 1988b) for more detailed results.

Amount and Kind of Foreign Language Instruction. First, secondary schools greatly outdistanced elementary schools in teaching foreign languages. Approximately one-fifth (22 percent) of the responding elementary schools and 87 percent of the responding secondary schools reported teaching foreign languages. A greater percentage of private schools than public



schools at both levels reported offering foreign language instruction.

Second, language enrollments were not high in schools offering foreign languages. Of the responding schools that teach foreign languages, the majority (58 percent of elementary schools and 77 percent of secondary schools) reported that less than half their students were enrolled in foreign language classes.

Third, the most popular languages were the same in elementary and secondary schools. The four languages most commonly offered in the responding elementary schools that teach languages were Spanish, French, Latin, and German, offered by 68 percent, 41 percent, 12 percent, and 10 percent, respectively. Among the responding secondary schools that taught languages, the top four languages offered were Spanish, French, German, and Latin, offered by 86 percent, 66 percent, 28 percent, and 20 percent, respectively. The proportion of schools offering other major world languages, such as Russian, Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic, was minuscule, ranging up to 3 percent of the responding schools that teach languages.

Finally, nonintensive foreign language programs were prevalent at both elementary and secondary levels. Of the 22 percent of the responding elementary schools that offer foreign languages, almost nine out of ten (86 percent) provided only introductory, nonintensive programs (called FLEX or FLES programs), whose goals are to expose students to the language and develop limited language skills. The rest--only 14 percent of that one-fifth, or about 3 percent of all responding elementary schools--provided more intensive programs (known as

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intensive FLES and immersion programs), which provide greater exposure to foreign languages.

At the secondary school level, 96 percent of the responding secondary schools that offer foreign languages said they provide "standard," or nonintensive, foreign language programs covering the four language skills. Foreign languages are generally taught only one to five hours per week in the secondary schools; only a handful of the responding secondary schools said they teach languages more intensively than five hours per week.

Background and Training of Teachers. From the responding elementary and secondary schools that teach languages, the following facts emerged about teachers: 44 percent of the elementary schools and 63 percent of the secondary schools have no foreign language teachers who are native speakers of the languages. About half of the elementary schools and nearly a third of the secondary schools said their foreign language teachers had no in-service training in the previous year. Finally, about half of the elementary schools said that none of their foreign language teachers are appropriately certified for elementary foreign language teaching.

Major Problems Cited by Respondents. The most severe problem with foreign language programs cited by more than half of the responding elementary and secondary schools that teach foreign languages was a shortage of funding. Three additional problems--shortage of teachers, lack of high-quality materials, and difficulties in articulation or instructional sequencing--were cited by one-fourth to one-third of the language-offering schools at both levels.

The articulation problem is complex and needs special explanation. In response to a question on the elementary school survey concerning articulation, one-third of the schools that offer languages said that many students who started learning a foreign language in elementary school had to repeat all their earlier work in the language when they reached secondary school, as if they had never studied the language. Other respondents reported that elementary school foreign language students, when moving up to secondary school, were sometimes required to drop their initial foreign language and begin a different one before achieving proficiency in the first one, or were offered no foreign language at all for the first few years of secondary school.

Other serious problems cited by many schools with language programs included lack of an established elementary school foreign language curriculum, inadequate testing and counseling, unrealistic public expectations, and lack of time for foreign language instruction.

The Broader Context

In the broader context, these results have three general implications. First, the results (when compared with background information on the number of hours needed to reach language proficiency) suggest that the amount of foreign language exposure typically received is inadequate to produce language proficiency. Second, some key world languages appear to be perilously ignored in U.S. elementary and secondary schools. Third, many foreign language education problems are explainable by a scarcity of resources; this scarcity in turn appears to reflect an underlying belief system.

Inadequate Foreign Language Exposure. A fundamental issue is whether the existing foreign language programs are capable of producing proficient foreign language users--that is, students who are able to use their foreign language for communication. The survey showed that almost all elementary and secondary school foreign language programs are nonintensive, providing only limited exposure to the new language. The following example is representative. Assuming five hours a week of foreign language exposure and approximately 30 weeks in the school year, only about 150 hours would be spent in learning a language each year. Is this rate of language exposure adequate to develop an acceptable level of language proficiency?

Foreign language proficiency can be seen as a continuum ranging from no functional ability (Level 0) to the equivalent of the skill of an educated native speaker of the language (Level 5).[2] A reference point is Level 3, the proficiency level at which the learner is able to use the new language fluently in most situations but still makes a few errors and lacks some vocabulary precision.

How long does it take to reach Level 3 proficiency? For native English-speaking adult language learners with high language aptitude in an intensive, 30-hour-per-week program under relatively ideal circumstances (i.e., small-group learning), it takes *24 weeks (720 hours)* to reach Level 3 proficiency in "easy" languages such as French, Spanish, or Swedish. It takes up to *92 weeks (2,760 hours)* to reach Level 3 proficiency in very difficult languages, such as Japanese, Chinese, or Arabic, with moderately difficult languages such as German or Russian falling between the extremes (Liskin-Gasparro, 1982).[3]

Assuming that it takes 720 to 2,760 hours, depending on the language, for high-aptitude students to reach Level 3 proficiency in intensive programs under ideal conditions, it would take high-aptitude students in nonintensive programs of about 150 hours per year (i.e., five hours a week of instruction for 30 weeks) *a minimum of 5 to 18 years* to reach Level 3 proficiency in the very best of circumstances. Naturally, it would take even longer for low- or average-aptitude learners in less than ideal language learning situations, especially if they were exposed to the foreign language less than five hours a week.

Survey results suggest that in the responding schools, students do *not* receive foreign language exposure that is sufficient to enable them to reach Level 3 proficiency, no matter how good the teachers or the instruction. In the responding schools, most students appeared to receive relatively short-term foreign language instruction; and for those few students who receive longer-term instruction bridging elementary and secondary schools, the likelihood is that this instruction is inadequately coordinated across levels. The current survey results make it easier to understand Liskin-Gasparro's (1982) disturbing finding that high school Spanish students, some of whom had studied Spanish for four years, were typically rated at Level 0 or 0+, reflecting *no functional ability to use the language for communication.* In still another investigation, even college foreign language majors after almost four years of language study were generally found to reach only Level 2 or 2+, at which speakers are able to handle conversations about concrete topics (Carroll, 1967).

Slighting of Some Important World Languages. Not only do the survey results imply insufficient foreign language exposure, they also reveal that some major world languages are almost completely ignored in U.S. elementary and secondary schools. The most commonly taught languages are Spanish, French, German, and Latin, the first three of which are major world languages;

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but other major world languages are seriously slighted. For example, Russian, Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic--some of the world's most important languages in terms of politics, economics, technology, geography, population, and military power--were reported as rarely taught in the responding schools. Although respondents did not cite the deemphasis of these key languages as a major problem, the United States ignores these major world languages at everyone's peril, including its own.

In contrast, in countries where Russian, Chinese, Japanese, or Arabic are spoken natively, students receive extensive exposure to English and other foreign languages, often starting in elementary grades and continuing for 10 years or more. Some of these nations, notably China, Japan, and Middle Eastern countries, actively recruit native English speakers to teach English in schools and universities, while the United States has no explicit native-speaker recruitment policy.

Scarce Resources and Dangerous Misconceptions. The two major issues just noted, inadequate foreign language exposure and deemphasis of several crucial languages, can be at least partially explained by scarcity of instructional resources. Scarcity of resources is also reflected in problems that survey respondents raised directly. For example, shortages of foreign language funds, teachers, and materials; poor articulation between elementary and secondary programs; and inadequate in-service training, testing, and counseling are all problems that relate in some way to resource-allocation decisions made by governments at all levels, schools and school districts, and (for materials) even publishers.

However, resource allocation does not operate in a vacuum; it usually reflects an underlying belief system. Three misconceptions appear to hold sway in U.S. foreign language education. First, foreign languages are optional academic frills rather than essential tools for communication. Second, Americans need not learn other languages, and the United States can afford to remain linguistically isolated as a nation. Third, the rest of the world's population is obliged to learn English to communicate with Americans. Before U.S. foreign language education will improve and the available resources will increase, these erroneous beliefs must be eradicated.

Action Plan

The survey results, placed in their broader context, prompt six general recommendations--the core of an action plan for improving U.S. foreign language education.

1. Start foreign language instruction in the elementary grades, and continue instruction in the same language until an acceptable level of proficiency is reached.

2. Expand foreign language offerings by: first, offering more intensive foreign language programs, including immersion programs at both elementary and secondary offerings of major world languages, including those that have not yet been emphasized.

3. Train more foreign language teachers (especially at the elementary level) and continue to improve their skills. Steps include recruiting more foreign language teachers; ensuring that they are proficient in the foreign languages they teach; developing guidelines for elementary foreign language teaching certification; and providing foreign language teachers with appropriate in-service training on language teaching techniques.

4. Encourage the development and use of high-quality language teaching materials.

5. Develop coherent local plans for foreign language instructional articulation between elementary and secondary schools.

6. To accomplish these goals, substantially increase funding by tapping present sources and finding new sources, such as international corporations and state-local matching funds.

NOTES

1. The Center for Language Education and Research (CLEAR) is a multi-year project funded under Contract No. 400-85-1010 by the U.S. Department of Education. CLEAR involves a consortium of organizations, including the University of California at Los Angeles, the Center for Applied Linguistics, Yale University, Harvard University, and the University of California at Santa Barbara. This article reflects the opinions of the authors and not necessarily the opinions of CLEAR or of the Department of Education. The authors express thanks to WESTAT, Market Facts, CEIS/CCSSO, and the Office of Management and Budget for their helpful contributions.

2. Proficiency levels refer to language proficiency rating scales, as described by Omaggio (1986) and Liskin-Gasparro (1982). Levels 0 through 5 are used in the federal government (Foreign Service Institute) scale, while levels such as Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, and so on, are used in the academic (ACTFL/ETS) verbal-descriptive scale. The scales are directly linked to each other. Since all the research cited here used the numerical scale, it is reported in that way.

3. Although differences might exist in language learning rates of adults and children, Liskin-Gasparro's adult-related figures give at least a rough estimate of the exposure time needed to reach proficiency in a formal learning environment. Oxford (1982) discusses advantages of various age groups in foreign language learning.

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